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SELECTIVE STUDIES IN
English Grammar

BY JOHN G. MURCESS

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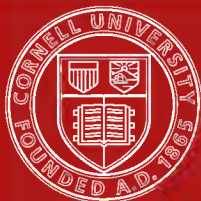
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INDUCTIVE STUDIES

IN

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

BY

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PREFACE.

IN recent years the conviction has frequently and emphatically been expressed that the grammar school course ought to be both shortened and enriched ; that much now in the course might be taken out, not only without loss, but with positive gain, and that much might be brought in which would make it a far more adequate preparation for the high school. Many, including the authors of this book, believe that, while many pupils in our grammar schools will never be able to enter the high school, yet the principles of a true democracy demand that all should be so taught as to render it easy for them to advance in knowledge, if the way should be opened.

In all high schools of good grade some foreign language is studied immediately upon entrance, and to many pupils it presents unusual difficulties. It is not too much to say that more than one half of the total number of failures in Latin in our high schools are due, not to any lack of capacity on the part of the pupil, or to any inherent difficulty in the language itself, but to a lack of practical mastery of English grammar.

This little book is a modest attempt to secure better preparation for the language work of the high school by a scientific and thought-inspiring method of presenting English grammar, by a reduction of the number of facts presented, to the few actually essential, by increased emphasis on certain matters often neglected but essential to any real mastery of the subject, and by adapting the terminology and method of presentation more closely to that used in German and Latin grammars.

These "Inductive Studies" were printed three years ago, and bound for ready reference with the "Inductive Latin Primer" of the same authors. They have now been very carefully revised, somewhat enlarged, and, by the efficient aid of the editors of the American Book Company, more perfectly adapted to the needs of our common

schools. It is believed that the book as it now stands, while giving direct and thorough preparation for the language-study of the high school, is equally well adapted to the needs of those whose school life will end with the grammar grade.

One of the authors of this book was for several years engaged in teaching English grammar and the rudiments of Latin to the same pupils, and this book is an outgrowth of that somewhat unusual experience.

These studies in English grammar require the use of a note-book in recording the results of the pupil's observation. The facts discovered by observation should be fixed in mind by constant practice in analyzing and parsing connected English, and in framing English sentences to illustrate grammatical forms or the rules of syntax.

The authors do not believe that a pupil's understanding of rules is effectively tested by classified groups of examples, each group being placed under its own rule, and therefore have not swelled the book with such collections of examples. The pupil's knowledge of a principle will be best tested by requiring him to pick out concrete examples of its application from several pages of connected English.

It is suggested that the freedom of arrangement required in poetry makes it somewhat superior to prose as a means of expelling from a pupil's mind the delusion that word-order is a safe guide to grammatical construction.

The passages in this book taken from Hawthorne's "Golden Touch" are used by permission of, and arrangement with, Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

In the preparation of these pages reference has been made to the English Grammars of Professors Whitney, Meiklejohn, Salmon, and Welsh. Mr. Byron Groce, Mr. John K. Richardson, Mr. Henry C. Jones, Mr. Francis De M. Dunn, all of the Boston Latin School, and Mr. Charles F. Kimball, of the Rice Training School, Boston, have rendered very valuable assistance in reading the proofs. Mr. Wayland J. Chase, of the University of Chicago, has aided in the revision by several excellent suggestions.

WILLIAM R. HARPER.

ISAAC B. BURGESS.

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INDUCTIVE STUDIES IN ENGLISH.



PRONUNCIATION.

1. **Vowels.** — The letters **a, e, i, o, u,** and **y** when it has the sound of **i**, are pronounced by a continuous flow of sound, and can be pronounced when standing alone.¹

These letters are called **VOWELS**.

NOTE. — When, as in **be-hav'-ior**, the letter **i** is preceded by an accented syllable and followed by another vowel, it is a consonant with the sound of **y**.

2. **Consonants.** — The other letters of the alphabet cannot be pronounced without checking the flow of sound by one or more of the vocal organs, nor without the aid of a vowel. Thus, in pronouncing the letter **f** the sound is checked by the lips and teeth, and the sound of **e** is inserted before that of **f**; what we pronounce is really a combination of two letters, — **ef**.

Such letters are called **CONSONANTS**.

What, then, is the difference between a vowel and a consonant?

3. **Mutes and Liquids.** — Those consonants in the pronunciation of which the sound is most completely checked, are called **MUTES**. They are **c, k, g, q; b, p; d, t**.

¹ This and the following sections on pronunciation should be vocally illustrated by the teacher.

It will be seen that these consonants are least like the vowels in their pronunciation.

Those consonants which are most like the vowels in their pronunciation are called LIQUIDS ; they are *l* and *r*.

4. Diphthongs. — Study the sounds of *ou* and *oi* in the words *oil*, *join*, *out*, *hound*. Note that the vowels in *ou* and *oi* have practically combined to form a single sound.

Such combinations of vowels are called DIPHTHONGS.

NOTE. — Consonants may combine to form a single sound. The letter *x* is often equivalent in pronunciation to *cs* or *ks*.

5. Syllables. — Any letter or combination of letters or sounds which may be completely pronounced by a single movement of the voice may be a SYLLABLE.¹ All words consist of one syllable or more ; thus, —

no-bod-y

my-self

a-way

Pronounce the following common words carefully, just as you have heard them pronounced by educated people, and then write them, dividing them by hyphens into the syllables which you have pronounced.²

Is each syllable of these words pronounced with the same energy?

metal

purpose

glistening

maiden

chiefly

foolish

loved

planted

¹ May a vowel be a syllable, and if so, why ?

² Care should be taken that each syllable is distinctly pronounced. Remember that there is a clear, though very brief, pause after each syllable. Oral spelling, provided each syllable is pronounced immediately after it is spelled, is an excellent means of cultivating the sense for syllables, which, for some reason, very many high-school pupils lack.

6. Number of Syllables in a Word compared with the Number of Vowels.—In the following words compare the number of vowels and diphthongs with the number of syllables:—

pos-si-bly	gar-den	loved	chief-ly
bet-ter	mu-sic	choose	thought
fond-er	more	be-cause	be-hav-ior

1. In which of the above words is the number of vowels and diphthongs the same as the number of syllables?

2. In which is the number of vowels and diphthongs greater than the number of syllables?

3. In the latter, are there any silent vowels?

4. If there were no silent vowels in English, what would be the rule for the number of vowels and diphthongs in a word as compared with the number of syllables?

7. Accent.—In the pronunciation of all English words of more than one syllable, one syllable is made prominent by a special loudness, distinctness, and energy of utterance, called **ACCENT**.

Accent may be described as a stroke of the voice, and it is indicated in written or printed language by a down-stroke just at the end of the accented syllable; thus,—

syl'-la-ble ex-ceed'-ing-ly

To the Teacher.—The pupil should have ample drill in distinct syllabication and definite accentuation. Do not allow any slurring of final syllables in words or sentences. It may be a help to represent syllables and accents graphically; thus,—

ex-ceed-ing-ly

Note that the lines which represent the syllables do not touch one another. What does this mean?

RULES FOR THE PRONUNCIATION OF VOWELS.

8. When we know the pronunciation of a syllable, and wish to find the sound of a single letter or group of letters in that syllable, we do so by gradually taking away the sound of the other letters, until only the letter or group in question remains; thus, —

mate, mat, ma, a.

But we must be very careful not to change the sound of the letter in question during the process.

1. Find and contrast the sound of the underlined vowels in the following familiar words: —

a. mate Eve fine note use type

b. mat end fin not us myth bot-tom feel-ing

The sound which we give to the vowels in the first line is called the long sound, and is indicated thus: —

māte

The sound which we give to the vowels in the second line is called the short sound, and is indicated thus: —

măt

Let the pupils, singly or in concert, be prepared to give the long and short sounds of the vowels.

2. Judging from the words above, what is the sound of all vowels in final syllables ending in a consonant, counting one-syllable words as final syllables? What is the sound of vowels in final syllables ending in *e* silent?

9. Study the following words, noting particularly the sound of the underlined vowel in each: —

<u>M</u> ary	<u>e</u> vil	<u>p</u> ining	<u>f</u> og <u>y</u>	<u>f</u> l <u>u</u> te
<u>m</u> arry	<u>e</u> lbow	<u>p</u> inning	<u>f</u> og <u>y</u> y	<u>f</u> l <u>u</u> tt <u>e</u> r

Also

election flexile calendar rapture ringing construct

1. Give the meaning of each of the above words.
2. Which of the vowels underlined above are immediately followed by two consonants before another vowel is reached?
3. Why should the first *e* in *flexile* be included in this list?
4. What is the sound of each of these vowels?
5. If these words represent the tendency in English pronunciation fairly, in what position may we expect to find short vowels?¹
6. Study the following examples for an exception to this rule:—

<u>ā</u> cre	<u>fr</u> āgr <u>a</u> nt	<u>ō</u> blige	<u>ī</u> dle
--------------	---------------------------	----------------	--------------

7. Repeat the list of mutes and that of liquids, and then see if you can state this exception.
8. From the definition of a liquid, what reason can you suggest for this exception?

10. The next to the last syllable is called the **PENULT**. The syllable before the penult is called the **ANTEPENULT**.

Observe the sound and position of the vowel in the antepenultimate syllables of the following words:—

<u>n</u> ā'-tion-al (cf. <u>n</u> ātion)	<u>cr</u> ēd'-i-ble (cf. <u>cr</u> ē-dence)
<u>v</u> īn'-e-gar (cf. <u>v</u> īne)	<u>M</u> ā'-y-gold (cf. <u>M</u> ā-ry)
<u>p</u> ar-tic'-u-lar	<u>pr</u> ōb'-a-ble <u>v</u> ic'-to-ry

¹ Note that the word "tendency" is used. While there are many exceptions to the tendencies of the language indicated in this and the following sections, still it is believed that a knowledge of these tendencies will be very helpful. While English pronunciation is a sore puzzle, it is not quite so lawless as is generally supposed.

And contrast

dī'-a-logue

vī'-o-let

dē'-i-fy

Also

pā'-tri-ot

in-tē'-ri-or

mā'-ni-ac

And also

cū'-po-la

ū'-ni-ty

cū'-cum-ber

lū'-bri-cate

1. What, from the above examples, seems to be the rule for the length of vowels before one or more consonants in antepenultimate accented syllables?

2. What examples show that this rule does not hold when the vowel of the penult is followed immediately by another vowel?

3. What examples show that the vowel *u* does not conform to the rule?

11. The Letter *u* in *qu*.—What letter represents the sound of *u* in the following words?

equity

liquid

quick

queen

quantity

By what consonant is *u* preceded in these words?

RULES FOR THE PRONUNCIATION OF CONSONANTS.

12. Study the sound of *c*, *t*, and *s*, when underlined in the following words:—

ar-ti-fi'-cial

con-fi-den'-tial

na'-tion

spe'-cies

ex-cur'-sion

ap-pre-hen'-sion

so'-cial

as-so'-ci-a'-tion

1. What sound is added to that of the underlined *c* or *s* in the above words?

2. In what respect is the sound of the underlined *t* similar to that of the underlined *c* or *s*?

3. What kind of a syllable invariably precedes *c*, *s*, or *t*?

4. What vowel invariably follows?
5. Why should the **x** in **anxious** and **noxious** follow the same rule?

13. Note the sound of **c** and **g** in the following words:—

sagacity	center	secrecy	physic	club	region	surgeon
ague	acid	election	physical	cod	cub	edge
grave	go	game	gypsy	gun	cant	mug

1. What two sounds has **c** in the above words?
2. What two has **g**?
3. Pick out the words in which **c** has its soft sound, or sound of **s**.
4. Pick out the words in which **g** has its soft sound, or sound of **j**.
5. Before what three vowels only does the soft sound of **c** and **g** occur?¹

¹ Only those principles of English pronunciation have been introduced which seemed most helpful to later study. It is believed that what has here been given will be useful, not only in pronouncing the mother-tongue, but also as a preparation for the English pronunciation of Latin. The teacher should see to it that these principles are applied to pronouncing English words never before seen by the pupils. Too often pupils pronounce their mother-tongue wholly by imitation.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

14. Once upon a time there lived a very rich man, and a king besides, whose name was Midas; and he had a little daughter whom nobody but myself ever heard of, and whose name I either never knew or have entirely forgotten. So, because I love odd names for little girls, I choose to call her Marygold.

HAWTHORNE: *Wonder Book*.

1. Are there any things which we know which cannot be known through any of the five senses? Make a list of all the names of persons and things in the above extract.¹

Such names are called NOUNS.

2. What word in the above, containing only one letter, is used instead of the name of the person who is speaking? What advantages are there in using such a word? Can you find any other words which take the place of nouns in the passage? For what noun does each stand?

Words which are used instead of nouns are called PRONOUNS. *Pro*, which is the first syllable, means *instead of*.

3. What words in the passage assert some action?

A word which asserts is called a VERB.

Make as many assertions or statements as possible, using only the nouns, pronouns, and verbs which you have collected. See if you can make a statement without using a verb. See if you can make a statement without using a noun or pronoun.

¹ In answering this and the following questions the teacher may allow the pupil to omit the more difficult instances.

4. What words in the passage on page 14 are used to describe nouns?

Such words are called **ADJECTIVES**.

The pupil will observe that a word which describes a noun also limits the number of objects which that noun can name. Thus the words, **rich man**, apply to a more limited number than the word **man**; the words, **little daughter**, to a more limited number than **daughter**; **this king** to only one, while the word **king** may be applied to scores of people.

Therefore an adjective is sometimes said to limit as well as describe. Indeed, some adjectives, like **this**, **the**, **two**, **some**, seem hardly to describe at all, but only to limit.

5. There are also words which describe or limit the action of verbs. Pick them out in the passage.

Such words are called **ADVERBS**. The word *adverb* means *near a verb*.

In the expression, a **very rich man**, we have an adverb, **very**, limiting an adjective, **rich**; and we might say, **Marygold loved her father very dearly**, where **dearly** must be an adverb, because it describes **loved**, and yet is itself limited by the adverb **very**. Therefore an adverb may limit an adjective or an adverb as well as a verb.

6. Observe in the passage the use of **upon**, in the expression **upon a time**; **but**, in the expression **but myself**; and **for**, in the expression **for little girls**.

It will be seen that **upon** connects **time** with **lived**, **but** connects **myself** with **nobody**, and **for** connects **girls** with **names**, and that each of these words, **upon**, **but**, and **for**, connects a noun or pronoun with something else, and shows some sort of a relation between the noun or pronoun which follows it and the word with which that noun or pronoun is connected.

Such words are called **PREPOSITIONS**.

7. Study the statement

There lived a very rich man, and he had a little daughter.

It is evidently made up of two statements, — **There lived a very rich man** and **The man had a little daughter**, united by the word **and**.

In like manner the statement

So, because I love odd names for little girls, I choose to call her Marygold,

is made up of two statements, — **I choose to call the little daughter Marygold**, and **I love odd names for little girls**, connected by the word **because**.

Words which, like **and** and **because**, connect statements, are called **CONJUNCTIONS**.

The conjunction seems many times to connect words used in the same way, as in the sentence

He gave all his thoughts and all his time to this one purpose.

What two words used in the same way does the conjunction here connect? Can you show, however, by inserting two omitted words, that there are really two complete statements here?

15. Observe how all the different classes of words in the passage we have been studying are connected. The pronouns take the place of nouns, the verbs when united to nouns or pronouns make assertions, and no assertion can be made with noun or verb alone. The adjectives describe the nouns, the adverbs describe the verbs, the prepositions connect nouns or pronouns to something else, and finally, statements are connected by the conjunction.

SPEECH often means the union of words to express ideas. Why then are nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc., called PARTS OF SPEECH? In what respects is the statement of an idea like the human body?

16. Interjections. — Study the words **Poh**, **Alas**, and **Ah** in the following sentences: —

- a.* **Poh!** my dear little girl, pray don't cry about it.
- b.* **Alas!** what had he done?
- c.* **Ah!** so you have made a discovery?

1. In what respects are the three words just mentioned used in the same way?

2. Under which of the classes called parts of speech may these three words be classified?

3. What does the punctuation immediately after each show as to their connection with the rest of the sentence?

Such abrupt expressions of feeling are called INTERJECTIONS, meaning words *thrown into* speech without being a part of it.

Since these interjections go along with speech, however, they are usually called parts of speech. They seem to bear about the same relation to the statement which they accompany as a ring on the hand bears to the body.

NUMBER AND GROUPING OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

17. Let us now group the parts of speech in two ways, in order to gain a more perfect understanding of them.

First we shall group them as to their use or office in a statement or assertion.

- 1. What two parts of speech are used as names?

2. What is the asserter in every assertion?¹
3. What are the two describers or limiters in an assertion?
4. What are the two connectors?
5. Is the interjection properly a part of speech? If not, why not?
6. What reasons are there for classifying it as such?
7. How may we make out eight parts of speech?
8. How may we reduce this number to six?
9. Is there any reason for reducing the number to only four?

It is usual to give the number of parts of speech as eight. It seems more correct, however, to call it six.

18. Let us now, in the second place, group the parts of speech in accordance with their relation to the noun and verb.

1. Why are the noun and verb considered the most independent and essential parts of speech?
2. What is the substitute for the noun? What is the describer of the noun? What is the connector of the noun?
3. What is the describer of the verb?
4. What is the connector of two assertions?

19. **Use, not Form, determines the Part of Speech.** — Let us now return to the study of our passage. We found that in this passage **time** was a noun, **very** was an adverb, **rich** was an adjective, **man** was a noun, **name** was a noun,

¹ The definition of the verb here given does not provide for interrogative and imperative sentences. Indeed, it is probably impossible to define the verb briefly and clearly so as to include such sentences. The interrogative and imperative forms, however, may be so easily changed to declarative that this definition will not be found seriously inadequate.

but was a preposition. What are these same words in the following statements?

- a.* You time your speed.
- b.* They man their boats.
- c.* Midas was the very man.
- d.* The rich are envied.
- e.* They name their daughter Marygold.
- f.* He went away, but I stayed at home.

We find — do we not? — that exactly the same words have in different statements been quite differently used, and hence have become other parts of speech. Is not the lesson of this fact plain? It is that the spelling — or, as we would better say, the form — of a word does not show what part of speech it is. This is determined wholly by its *use* in a statement.

Hence we must not try to tell the part of speech of a word until we see it *used* in a statement. Very many words, like those in the six sentences we have just compared, are used as different parts of speech in different assertions.

To the Teacher. — Too great emphasis can hardly be given to the above lesson. The pupil should have much practice in using one word as different parts of speech. A firm and consistent application of the principle that the part of speech is determined by *use*, and not by *form*, will do more than any other one thing to simplify English grammar.

Such an expression as “an adjective used as a noun” is a contradiction in terms. If any word is *used* as a noun, it *is* a noun, since *use* alone determines the part of speech. The expression quoted certainly implies that something else than *use* determines the part of speech, and the beginner concludes that it is the form of the word. It would be correct to say “a word usually an adjective, but here a noun,” though in many cases the use of a word is so various that it is impossible to say which part of speech it usually is.

20. Words which do Duty as more than One Part of Speech. — Study the words underlined in the following sentences : —

a. Raising his head, he looked the lustrous stranger in the face.

b. After carefully locking the door, he took a bag of gold.

c. If these flowers were golden, they would be worth the plucking.

d. I choose to call her Marygold.

e. Once there lived a king whose name was Midas. This king was fonder of gold than of anything else.

f. Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him.

g. He had a little daughter, and he called her Marygold.

h. He had a little daughter whom he called Marygold.

1. Observe that in *a* the word **raising** not only describes the following pronoun **he** like an adjective, but also expresses action and affects the noun **head** by its action. Furthermore, it is formed by adding an ending to the verb **raise**. Although it is like a verb in expressing action, it cannot be one, for it makes no assertion, like the verb **looked**, for instance, in the same sentence.

An adjective which is similar in form and meaning to a verb is called a VERBAL ADJECTIVE, and some verbal adjectives, like **raising**, are called PARTICIPLES.

2. In sentences *b*, *c*, and *d*, note that **locking**, **plucking**, and **to call** are the names of actions expressed by the verbs **lock**, **pluck**, and **call**. They are, therefore, verbal nouns.

Such verbal nouns as these are called INFINITIVES.

3. In *e*, note that **this** limits the meaning of **king**, and is therefore an adjective. It refers, however, to King Midas mentioned in the preceding sentence, and has, there-

fore, to some extent the use of a pronoun, though it only refers to a noun and does not take its place.

We therefore call it a **PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVE**. Make a sentence in which **this** will be a pronoun.

4. In sentence *f*, note that **though** not only limits the verb **slay** like an adverb, but also connects the statement in which it stands with the statement, **yet will I trust in him**.

It is therefore both a conjunction and an adverb, and is sometimes called a **CONJUNCTIVE ADVERB**.

5. Note, in *g* and *h*, that **whom** in *h* takes the place of the conjunction **and** and the pronoun **her** in *g*.

A word which thus does the work of a conjunction and a pronoun is called a **RELATIVE PRONOUN**.

6. From what immediately precedes, it will be seen that many words discharge, to some extent, the office of more than one part of speech. But note further that in at least three of these cases there is no doubt as to how we shall classify the word in question.

The verbal adjective or participle is always an adjective and never a verb, because it always describes a noun and never asserts. (See **14**, 3.) A verbal noun or infinitive is always a noun and never a verb, because it always names but never asserts; and a pronominal adjective is always an adjective and never a pronoun, because it always limits and never takes the place of a noun. (See **14**, 2.)

In the case of the conjunctive adverb and the relative pronoun, however, the single word seems clearly to do the work of two parts of speech.

INFLECTION.

CASE.

21. Note the connection of each underlined word in the following sentences with the other words in the same statement or sentence : —

- a.* The father loves his daughter.
- b.* He loves his daughter.
- c.* The father is loved by his daughter.
- d.* The father's gold will be given to his daughter.
- e.* The daughter gives her father a rose.
- f.* The daughter gives him a rose.
- g.* She loves him.
- h.* Father, may I go ?
- i.* She goes with him.
- j.* She goes with her father.

1. We note that **father** in *a* and *c* and **he** in *b* are the persons made most prominent in these sentences : they are the subjects of discourse, and so are said to be the **SUBJECTS** of the sentence.

In *i* and *j*, however, **him** and **father** are not the subjects, but are connected to a more important word by the preposition **with**.

It is therefore plain that a noun or pronoun may have different relations to the other words of the sentence in which it stands. The relation in which it stands to the other words of the sentence is called its **CASE**.

If a word is the subject of a sentence, it is said to be in

the NOMINATIVE CASE; if it is the object¹ of a preposition, it is in the OBJECTIVE, or ACCUSATIVE, CASE.

The word **father** is the same in spelling or form in both the nominative and the objective. How is it with the pronoun **he**? Cf. (that is, compare) *i*.

2. There are still other cases or relations of nouns and pronouns. The words **father's** before **gold** and **his** before **daughter** in *d* show that the father possesses the **gold** and a **daughter**.

This relation is therefore called the POSSESSIVE, or GENITIVE, CASE.

How does **his** differ in form from **he**; **father's** from **father**?

3. Again, the words **father** and **him** in *e* and *f* have the action of the verb exerted indirectly, not directly, upon them. (The direct object in each case is **rose**.)

This relation of indirect object is frequently called the DATIVE CASE, but in English grammar is usually classed under the OBJECTIVE CASE.

Does the form of the dative differ from that of the objective or accusative? Cf. *g*, *i*, and *j*.

4. In *h*, the word **father** designates the person who is addressed.

When so used, a noun is sometimes said to be in the VOCATIVE CASE, though it is usually classed under the nominative.

Is the vocative case closely connected with the rest of the sentence?

Compare the vocative **father** in *h* with the nominative **father** in *a*. Do these cases differ in form?

¹ The meaning of this word when used of prepositions is explained on page 22.

NUMBER AND DECLENSION.

22. Let us study the underlined words in the following sentences : —

- a. The fathers love their daughters.
- b. The fathers' gold will be given to their daughters.
- c. The daughters give their fathers roses.
- d. They go with their fathers.
- e. Fathers, love your daughters.
- f. They love their daughters.
- g. Their gold will be given to their daughters.
- h. The daughters give them roses.
- i. They go with them.

1. A noun which, like **father**, names a single person or thing, is in the SINGULAR NUMBER ; a noun which, like **fathers**, names more than one, is in the PLURAL NUMBER.

In what different cases is the word **fathers** used in the sentences above ? Pick out each different use.

In what different cases is the pronoun of which **they** is the nominative plural used in the above sentences ?

2. Note that **father** is changed to **father's** to show that the **father** possesses something instead of does something (as in 21, a), and that **fathers** is changed to **fathers'** for the same reason. Therefore the form is changed, to indicate a difference of relation to the other words of the sentence.

In the change from the nominative singular **father** to the nominative plural **fathers**, however, there is no difference in relation, but there is a difference of meaning.

A change in the form of a word to indicate either a change of relation or a change of meaning is called INFLECTION.

The complete and orderly inflection of a noun or pronoun is called its **DECLENSION**.

3. In declining a noun or pronoun it is customary to write the cases in the following order, — nominative (vocative), possessive (genitive), objective (dative, accusative), —and to write the singular before the plural.

Decline **father** and **he**, selecting the different case-forms from the sentences we have just been studying.

		<i>Singular</i>		<i>Plural</i>	
Nom.	{ Nom. }	father	he	fathers	they
	{ Voc. }	father		fathers	
Poss.	(Gen.)	father's	his	fathers'	their
Obj.	{ Dat. }	father	him	fathers	them
	{ Accus. }	father	him	fathers	them

4. As to the cases which are alike, the word **father** is a fair sample of all nouns, and the word **he** is a fair sample of several pronouns. (1) What cases then are always alike in nouns both in singular and plural? (2) Answer the same question in regard to the pronoun **he**. (3) What case differs in form from the nominative both in singular and in plural, and in both nouns and pronouns? (4) What case, though like the nominative in nouns, is different from the nominative in the pronoun **he**? (5) What is the exact difference between the possessive singular and possessive plural of **father**? (6) Fill out the following blanks : —

	<i>Singular</i>		<i>Singular</i>
Nom. (Voc.), Obj. (Dat., Acc.)	father	Nom.	he
Poss. (Gen.)	—	Poss. (Gen.)	—
		Obj. (Dat., Acc.)	—
	<i>Plural</i>		<i>Plural</i>
Nom. (Voc.), Obj. (Dat., Acc.)	—	Nom.	—
Poss. (Gen.)	—	Poss. (Gen.)	—
		Obj. (Dat., Acc.)	—

(7) How many different forms has every English noun?

(8) How many has the pronoun **he**?

Though there are only two forms of the English noun in each number, there are more than two cases. Usually there are said to be three cases, the nominative, possessive, and objective; but we may add to the number by distinguishing special uses, and so have the nominative, nominative-vocative, possessive or genitive, dative-objective, and accusative-objective — five in all.

23. Declension of Nouns.—Study the following declensions: ¹—

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>
Nominative (Nom., Voc.)	box	lass	ox	child
Possessive (Gen.)	box's	lass's	ox's	child's
Objective (Dat., Acc.)	box	lass	ox	child
	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
Nominative (Nom., Voc.)	boxes	lasses	oxen	children
Possessive (Gen.)	boxes'	lasses'	oxen's	children's
Objective (Dat., Acc.)	boxes	lasses	oxen	children
	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>
Nominative (Nom., Voc.)	man	mouse	boy	day
Possessive (Gen.)	man's	mouse's	boy's	day's
Objective (Dat., Acc.)	man	mouse	boy	day
	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
Nominative (Nom., Voc.)	men	mice	boys	days
Possessive (Gen.)	men's	mice's	boys'	days'
Objective (Dat., Acc.)	men	mice	boys	days

¹ Many pupils do not know the facts and rules here illustrated. Special attention should be given to the nominative and possessive plural. In parenthesis are given the names of the cases as they are usually designated in German, Latin, and Greek. The great advantage, to the pupil about to begin Latin, of knowing the names and some of the uses of five of the Latin cases will be apparent.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>
Nominative (Nom., Voc.)	lady	pony	hoof	calf
Possessive (Gen.)	lady's	pony's	hoof's	calf's
Objective (Dat., Acc.)	lady	pony	hoof	calf
	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
Nominative (Nom., Voc.)	ladies	ponies	hoofs	calves
Possessive (Gen.)	ladies'	ponies'	hoofs'	calves'
Objective (Dat., Acc.)	ladies	ponies	hoofs	calves

1. (1) How does the nominative plural of **box** and **lass** differ from that of **father** in ending? (2) Name other words which add **-s** to form the nominative plural. (3) Others which add **-es**.

From these words it appears that as a rule we add **-es** when the nominative singular ends with such a sound that if **-s** is added, the sound of **e** is produced in the effort to pronounce this **s**.

2. What two letters (preceded by **r** in the case of **child**) are added to **ox** and **child** to make the nominative plural? There are very few words thus declined.

3. (1) What *part* of the words **man** and **mouse** is changed in forming the nominative plural? (2) Compare them in this respect with the other words declined above. (3) Give other words declined like **man** and **mouse**.

4. (1) In what respect are the four words below alike?

boy **day** **lady** **pony**

(2) What difference is there in the formation of the nominative plural between the first two and last two? (3) What kind of a letter stands before **y** in **boy** and **day**? (4) What in **lady** and **pony**? (5) What then seems to be the rule for the formation of the nominative plural of nouns ending in **y**?

5. (1) What is the likeness of ending between the nouns **hoof** and **calf**? (2) What is the difference in the formation of their nominatives plural?

Some nouns ending with the sound of **f** form the plural like **hoof**, some like **calf**; but there is no rule regulating the matter, as in the case of nouns ending in **y**.

6. (1) What difference is there between plurals like

oxen

children

men

mice

and all the other plurals here given? (2) What important difference in the possessives plural as compared with the other possessives plural?

7. It will be seen that while most nouns in English form their nominative plural by simply adding **-s**, there are several other ways of forming the plural. In other words, there are several different declensions in English.

24. Declension of Pronouns. — Write eight sentences illustrating the use of the four singular and four plural cases of the pronoun **she**, just as was done with **he** in **21** and **22**. Now decline **she** in the singular and in the plural, selecting the proper cases from your sentences.

Repeat this process in the case of the pronouns **it**, **I**, **who**, **which**, **that** (as in **all that glitters is not gold**), **what**, **this**, **that** (as in **I know that**), and in the case of **thou**, but write ten cases of **thou**. Why can we write ten cases of **thou**, but only eight of the other pronouns?

Compare the plurals of **he**, **she**, and **it**.

I, **thou**, **he**, **she**, **it** are called **PERSONAL PRONOUNS**; **this** and **that** (when used like **this**) **DEMONSTRATIVES**.

Be very careful about the use of the word **that**. Give sentences in which it will be successively a demonstrative pronoun, a demonstrative adjective, a relative pronoun, and a conjunction.

THE FORM OF ADJECTIVES.

25. Are adjectives inflected¹ for case and number? Since the adjective is not an independent part of speech, but only describes or limits some noun or pronoun, if inflected at all, it seems natural that its inflection should correspond or agree with that of the noun which it describes.

To see whether people are accustomed to do this, let us use any adjective we may choose, with every case and both numbers, of the word **father** as used in the sentences for study in **21** and **22**. If we use, for instance, the adjective **rich**, we shall find that we say

rich father,

with her rich father,

rich father's gold,

rich fathers, etc.,

and that no change is made in the form of **rich** to correspond with changes in the form of **father**.

This is so with all adjectives but **this** and **that**.

What change is made in these adjectives when a change in the case of the noun is made? What, when the number of the noun is changed?

Why should not the form of all adjectives be varied to correspond with different cases and numbers of the nouns which they describe, just as the form of **this** varies for singular and plural? It certainly would not be strange if they did so, and we know that this was formerly the case in English, and is now the case in many other languages.²

¹ What is the meaning of this word? See **22**, 2.

² The writer knows a little boy, just learning to talk, who uses such expressions as **freights cars**, **flowers gardens**. This shows, perhaps, a feeling on his part that the adjective ought to agree with the noun.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

26. Study the adjectives underlined below : —

a rich man

a richer man

the richest man

(1) What changes have been made above in the form of **rich**? (2) What changes have been made in the meaning by the endings? (3) Why should **richer** be called the comparative¹ degree, and **richest** the superlative? (4) Why do we say a rich man, but the richest man?

Rich is said to be in the POSITIVE DEGREE, and the process of changing the form of an adjective, as it is done above, is called COMPARING.

27. Study the underlined adjectives below : —

a beautiful child

a beautifuler child

the beautifullest child

a more beautiful child

the most beautiful child

(1) Is there any difference of meaning between **beautifuler** and **more beautiful**? The latter is preferable. Contrast the two methods of comparison illustrated above. (2) To what word is the ending **-er** equivalent in meaning? (3) To what, the ending **-est**? (4) What parts of speech are **more** and **most**? Cf. 14, 5, **very rich**.

Long words are usually compared by means of the adverbs **more** and **most**, **less** and **least**.

¹ Let the pupil look up the meaning of these words in the dictionary, if necessary.

28. Study the following adjectives. They show the comparison of all adjectives ending in **-e**, **-y**, and in a consonant preceded by a short vowel.

pure water,	purer,	purest
the early bird,	earlier,	earliest
a sad sight,	sadder,	saddest

(1) Are the above adjectives compared, like **rich**, by adding **-er** and **-est** to the positive? (2) If not, give the rule for comparing adjectives ending in **-e**. (3) For those ending in **-y**. (4) For those ending in a consonant preceded by a short vowel.

29. 1. Several adjectives are irregularly compared; as,

good, better, best	many or much, more, most
bad or ill, worse, worst	near, nearer, nearest or next
little, less, least	far, farther, farthest

2. Name several adjectives which from the nature of their meaning are used only in the positive.

3. In such colloquial expressions as

we had a most agreeable visit,

the words a **most agreeable** do not have the proper superlative force of preëminence to all others, as is shown by the use of the article **a** instead of **the**; they seem to be equivalent to **a very agreeable**.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

30. In the following sentences, pick out the adverbs:—

He came soon. He came sooner than was expected. He wrote well. She wrote best. They crossed the ocean more safely than their friends.

(1) Are any adverbs compared? (2) How are those given above compared?

INFLECTION OF VERBS.

31. Study the verb-endings in the following short sentences:—

a. **He loves, they love.** *b.* **Thou lovest, I love.**

c. **They love, they loved.**

1. (1) What is the only difference in the form of the two verbs under *a*? The only difference in the meaning of **he loves** and **they love** is that in the first example the assertion is made of one person, in the second, of more than one. (2) To what, then, is the difference in the form of the verbs owing? (3) Is the verb always inflected to show a difference in number? Cf. **I love** and **we love**.

2. In *b*, however, there is certainly no difference in the number of the subject, and the assertions state that the acts described in each case are in present time. To what, then, is the difference in the form of the verb owing?

That difference in the form of the pronoun which shows whether it refers to a person (or persons) speaking, to a person spoken to, or a person spoken of, is called a difference of PERSON. The person speaking is called the first person; the one spoken to, the second person; and the one spoken of, the third person.

Name the pronouns of each person. (See 24.) Which person of the verb is used with all nouns? Let the pupil put several nouns into sentences, and answer from his own observation. Which person of the verb is most used?

3. In *c* there is no difference of number or of person, and yet the verbs differ in form. (1) To what is this difference in form owing?

A difference in the form of a verb which shows a difference in the time of the action denoted by the verb is called a difference of TENSE. (2) What are the only three possible distinctions or divisions of time which can be made? (3) What two of these appear in the sentences of *c*?

The preceding study shows that the verb is inflected in order to show differences in time, or tense, and also because of differences in the number or person of its subject.

Name the three inflectional endings which you have just learned, and state very definitely the use of each.

32. Participles and Infinitives. — Study the meaning, use, and form of the underlined words below: —

- a.* A loving daughter.
- b.* A loved daughter.
- c.* He was loved by all.
- d.* To love¹ God is the duty of man.
- e.* Loving is better than hating.

Note that the underlined words, though evidently formed from the verb **love**, are not verbs, for they do not assert anything. (See 14, 3.) (1) What part of speech is each? (See 20, 1, 2.) (2) What difference is there in time, or tense, between **loving** and **loved**? (3) What difference in form? (4) Compare the form of the past tense and that of the past participle. (5) Give several other verbs which form their past tense and past participle by adding -**d** or -**ed** to the simple infinitive.

33. Summary of Verbal Inflection. — Study the following verb-forms, comparing those above the horizontal line with those below: —

¹ In the expression **he will love**, **love** is an infinitive.

PRESENT TENSE.¹

Sing.
I love
thou lovest
he loves

Plur.
we love
you love
they love

Sing.
I call
thou callest
he calls

Plur.
we call
you call
they call

Sing.
I learn
thou learnest
he learns

Plur.
we learn
you learn
they learn

PAST TENSE.

Sing.
I loved
thou lovedst
he loved

Plur.
we loved
you loved
they loved

Sing.
I called
thou calledst
he called

Plur.
we called
you called
they called

Sing.
I learned or learnt
thou learnedst " learntest
he learned " learnt

Plur.
we learned or learnt
you learned " learnt
they learned " learnt

PRESENT TENSE.

Sing.
I write
thou writest
he writes

Plur.
we write
you write
they write

Sing.
I sing
thou singest
he sings

Plur.
we sing
you sing
they sing

Sing.
I dig
thou diggest
he digs

Plur.
we dig
you dig
they dig

PAST TENSE.

Sing.
I wrote
thou wrotest
he wrote

Plur.
we wrote
you wrote
they wrote

Sing.
I sang
thou sangest
he sang

Plur.
we sang
you sang
they sang

Sing.
I dug
thou duggest
he dug

Plur.
we dug
you dug
they dug

¹ It seems best to defer the subject of mode until syntax is reached, since the imperative and subjunctive have no forms not found in the indicative, and the modal idea is difficult for beginners.

VERBAL FORMS.¹

INFINITIVES.

love	call	learn	write	sing	dig
to love	to call	to learn	to write	to sing	to dig
loving	calling	learning	writing	singing	digging ²

PRESENT PARTICIPLE.

loving	calling	learning	writing	singing	digging
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PAST PARTICIPLE.

loved	called	learned	written	sung	dug
or learnt					

34. The systematic arrangement of all the forms of the verb, as in the preceding article, is called CONJUGATION.

What is the similar arrangement of the forms of the noun and pronoun called? (See 22, 2, 3.)

1. The verb **love** represents a large class of verbs ending in **-e** silent. Note that such verbs add **-d** in the past tense and past participle instead of **-ed**, as in **called**, and **-st** in second person singular of the present tense instead of **-est**, as in **callest**. Note, however, that the ending of the forms **called** and **loved** is the same.

2. **Learned** and **learnt** are substantially the same in form, for in **learned** the **e** before **d** is silent, the **-ed** does not form an additional syllable, and the **-d** has nearly the sound of **t**. There is a tendency, at the present time, to write the ending **-t** instead of **-ed** in such cases.

3. Those verbs which, like **love**, **call**, and **learn**, have the past tense and past participle alike, and regularly form

¹ The following forms, though not strictly verbs (see 14, 3, and 32), are usually classed with them.

² The **g** is doubled in the middle of the word on the principle illustrated by **sad**, **sadder**, in 28.

both by the addition of **-d**, **-ed**, or **-t** to the infinitive, are said to belong to the **NEW CONJUGATION**, or, as it is sometimes called, the **regular**, or **weak conjugation**.

4. Bearing in mind the suggestions of 1 and 2, write all the different forms of **love**, **call**, and **learn**, including infinitives and participles. How many are there? Write the same forms of **write**, **sing**, and **dig**. Why is there one more of these forms in **write** and **sing** than in the other verbs? Verify from your own observation of the above six verbs the following statements: —

(1) The past tense sometimes differs from the past participle.

(2) The second person singular of the present tense, the third person singular of the same tense, and the present participle may always be formed by adding **-est**, **-s**, and **-ing**, respectively, to the simple infinitive or to the simple infinitive less a final silent **-e**.

(3) The second person singular of the past tense is formed by adding **-est** or **-st** to the first or third person singular of the same tense.

Therefore if the simple infinitive, the third person singular of the past tense, and the past participle are known, all the other inflectional forms of the verb can be formed.

From this fact, and from the frequency with which these forms are used, they are called the **PRINCIPAL PARTS** of the verb.

✓ 35. **The Old Conjugation.** — The three verbs **write**, **sing**, and **dig** belong to what is called the **OLD CONJUGATION**. At first sight these verbs seem to have nothing in common. They are, however, alike in two or three particulars. Learn thoroughly the following list of very common verbs of the old conjugation, and tell in what respects

they are alike. Specially important or difficult verbs are underlined.

<i>Infinitive.</i>	<i>Past tense.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
<u>bear</u> , to give birth to	<u>bore</u>	<u>born</u>
<u>bear</u> , to carry	<u>bore</u>	<u>borne</u>
beat	beat	beaten
blow	blew	blown
<u>break</u>	<u>broke</u>	<u>broken</u>
bite	bit	bitten or bit
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come
<u>do</u>	<u>did</u> ¹	<u>done</u>
draw	drew	drawn
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate ²	eaten ²
fall	fell	fallen
fight	fought	fought
<u>fly</u> (cf. flee, 36)	<u>flew</u>	<u>flown</u>
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got, gotten
give	gave	given
<u>go</u>	<u>went</u> ³	<u>gone</u>
hold	held	held
know	knew	known
<u>lie</u> (cf. lay, 36)	<u>lay</u>	<u>lain</u>
ride	rode	ridden

¹ The final **d** is not here -**d** added to **do**, but the word **did** is formed by placing the letters **di** before the **d** of **do** and dropping the **o**.

² There is also a past tense and past participle **eat**, pronounced **ēt**.

³ Really the past tense of **wend** regularly used as the past of **go**.

<i>Infinitive.</i>	<i>Past tense.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
<u>see</u>	<u>saw</u>	<u>seen</u>
shake	shook	shaken
<u>sit</u> (cf. set, 36)	<u>sat</u>	<u>sat</u>
speak	spoke	spoken
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
wear	wore	worn
win	won	won

1. From an examination of this list, it appears that the verbs of the old conjugation (1) always change (at least in pronunciation) the vowel of the infinitive in either the past tense or past participle, or in both; (2) never add anything to the infinitive to form the past tense (except sometimes a silent final *e*); and (3) if they add anything to form the past participle, add *-en* or *-n*.

How, then, is the old conjugation distinguished from the new conjugation? Cf. 34, 3. The old conjugation is sometimes called the strong, or irregular, conjugation.

2. Note with care the fact that some of the verbs of the old conjugation have the past tense and past participle alike, while in many they are different. A common mistake is to use the past tense instead of the past participle; to say, for instance, *it is broke*, instead of *it is broken*.

36. Irregular Verbs of the New Conjugation.¹ — There are some verbs of the new conjugation which, while regular in having one form for past tense and past participle and in forming it by adding **-ed**, **-d**, or **-t**, are irregular in making some change in the vowel or vowels within the infinitive, in suffering some contraction, or in having a past participle like that of the old conjugation. The following are the most common of these. Specially difficult verbs are underlined: —

<i>Infinitive.</i>	<i>Past tense.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
beseech	besought	besought
bend	bent	bent
bleed	bled	bled
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
buy	bought	bought
<u>catch</u>	<u>caught</u>	<u>caught</u>
cut	cut	cut
creep	crept	crept
dwelt	dwelt	dwelt
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
<u>flee</u> (cf. fly , 35)	<u>fled</u>	<u>fled</u>
have	had	had
hurt	hurt	hurt

¹ The teacher can hardly insist too rigidly upon a mastery of the verb-forms in this and the preceding article, and upon a clear idea of the distinction between conjugations. Many pupils will be found who do not know the parts of many English verbs so as to use them correctly in sentences. Moreover, such a distinction will help toward an understanding of conjugation in Latin, and particularly in German.

<i>Infinitive.</i>	<i>Past tense.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt	knelt
<u>lay</u> (cf. lie, 35)	<u>laid</u>	<u>laid</u>
<u>lead</u>	<u>led</u>	<u>led</u>
leave	left	left
let	let	let
light	lit (or lighted)	lit (or lighted)
<u>make</u>	<u>made</u> (for maked)	<u>made</u>
meet	met	met
pay (cf. say)	paid	paid
put	put	put
<u>read</u> (cf. lead)	<u>read</u>	<u>read</u> ¹
rend	rent	rent
say	said	said
seek	sought	sought
send	sent	sent
<u>set</u> (cf. sit, 35)	<u>set</u>	<u>set</u>
sell (cf. tell)	sold	sold
<u>shoe</u>	<u>shod</u>	<u>shod</u>
show	showed	showed or shown
shut	shut	shut ²
sow	sowed	sowed or sown
sleep	slept	slept
spread	spread	spread
strew	strewed	strewed or strewn
teach	taught	taught
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought

¹ Cf. the pronunciation of past tense and past participle with that of infinitive.

² In what letters do all verbs, having all three parts alike, end ?

37. Conjugation of Be, Have, Shall, and Will. — The conjugation of these four useful verbs is irregular: —

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>
I am	I have	I shall	I will
thou art	thou hast	thou shalt	thou wilt
he is	he has	he shall	he will
<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
we are	we have	we shall	we will
you are	you have	you shall	you will
they are	they have	they shall	they will

PAST TENSE.

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>
I was	I had	I should	I would
thou wast	thou hadst	thou shouldst	thou wouldst
he was	he had	he should	he would
<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
we were	we had	we should	we would
you were	you had	you should	you would
they were	they had	they should	they would

VERBAL FORMS.

INFINITIVES.

be, to be, being have, to have, having (wanting) (wanting)

PRESENT PARTICIPLE.

being having (wanting) (wanting)

PAST PARTICIPLE.

been had (wanting) (wanting)

1. Give the principal parts of these verbs.
2. To what conjugation do **have**, **shall**, and **will** belong?
3. The verbs **can**, past **could**, and **may**, past **might**, also lack the infinitive and participles, like **shall**.

38. Inflection by Combination. — Compare the following sentences : —

- | | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| <i>a.</i> I love. | <i>c.</i> I shall love. | <i>e.</i> He will love. |
| <i>b.</i> I loved. | <i>d.</i> Thou wilt love. | |

1. What is the tense of *a*? *b*? *c*, *d*, and *e*?
2. How do we know, from its form, that **loved** in **I loved** is past? How do we know, from the form, that **will love** in **he will love** is future? Note, then, that the word **will** in the combination **will love** expresses time like the letter **-d** in the word **loved**.
3. We have seen that a change in the meaning or relation of the verb may be denoted by a change in the letters of which it is composed; now we find that a change in meaning may be effected by combining two words.

This process, called **INFLECTION BY COMBINATION**, is much employed in changing the meaning of verbs.

4. What verb is used to express futurity in the first person? What in the second and third?

39. Perfect, Imperfect, and Indefinite Action. — Study the following sentences : —

- | | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| <i>a.</i> He loves. | <i>b.</i> He is loving. | <i>c.</i> He has loved. |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|

1. In what time is the action represented in each of these sentences?
2. What difference is there between *b* and *c* as to the completeness of the action represented? The verb in *a* does not distinctly mark the action as either incomplete

or complete ; it is therefore called the **PRESENT INDEFINITE**. The combination **is loving** is called the **PRESENT PROGRESSIVE** or **PRESENT IMPERFECT**, and **has loved** the **PRESENT PERFECT**. It is manifest that in the past and the future also the action may be represented as indefinite, imperfect, or perfect. So represent it in the case of the verb **love**.

3. Do the terms “perfect” and “imperfect” when strictly used apply to the tense or the action of the verb?

40. The Passive Voice. — Compare the three pairs of sentences which follow : —

a. I love.

c. I loved.

e. I shall love.

b. I am loved.

d. I was loved.

f. I shall be loved.

1. Is there any difference in tense, number, and person between *a* and *b*, *c* and *d*, *e* and *f*?

2. What, then, is the difference of meaning in each case? This difference lies in the relation of the subject to the verb. The combinations **am loved**, **was loved**, and **shall be loved**, are said to be in the **PASSIVE VOICE**; the word passive meaning *suffering*, or *enduring*.

3. What is it that is suffering or enduring when a passive verb is used, — the verb or its subject?

41. Conjugation of Love and Write. — The following is the conjugation of **love** and **write** in the third person singular, not only by simple inflection, but also by combination.¹ (See 33 and 37.)

¹ It is not claimed that the conjugation here given is exhaustive ; it is nearly complete for the three time divisions and the three possibilities as to completeness or incompleteness of action. Compare it with the Latin indicative, noting the Latin tenses which cover two of those here given.

PRESENT TENSE.

Active Voice.

<i>Indef.</i>	he loves	he writes
<i>Imp.</i>	he is loving	he is writing
<i>Pf.</i>	he has loved	he has written

Passive Voice.

<i>Indef.</i>	he is loved	it ¹ is written
<i>Imp.</i>	he is being loved	it is being written
<i>Pf.</i>	he has been loved	it has been written

PAST TENSE.

Active Voice.

<i>Indef.</i>	he loved	he wrote
<i>Imp.</i>	he was loving	he was writing
<i>Pf.</i>	he had loved ²	he had written

Passive Voice.

<i>Indef.</i>	he was loved	it was written
<i>Imp.</i>	he was being loved	it was being written
<i>Pf.</i>	he had been loved	it had been written

FUTURE TENSE.

Active Voice.

<i>Indef.</i>	he will love	he will write
<i>Imp.</i>	he will be loving	he will be writing
<i>Pf.</i>	he will have loved	he will have written

Passive Voice.

<i>Indef.</i>	he will be loved	it will be written
<i>Imp.</i>	(not in use)	(not in use)
<i>Pf.</i>	he will have been loved	it will have been written

¹ It is important to note that comparatively few verbs have such a meaning as to admit all persons in both active and passive. Let the pupil illustrate this with a number of verbs.

² The past perfect is often called the pluperfect tense.

VERBAL FORMS.

INFINITIVES.

Active.

<i>Indef.</i>	love, to love, loving	write, to write, writing
<i>Imp.</i>	to be loving	to be writing
<i>Pf.</i>	to have loved	to have written

Passive.

<i>Indef.</i>	be loved, to be loved	be written, to be written
<i>Imp.</i>	(not in common use)	(not in common use)
<i>Pf.</i>	to have been loved	to have been written

PARTICIPLES.

Active.

<i>Indef.</i>	(not in use)	(not in use)
<i>Imp.</i>	loving	writing
<i>Pf.</i>	having loved	having written

Passive.

<i>Indef.</i>	loved	written
<i>Imp.</i>	being loved	being written
<i>Pf.</i>	having been loved	having been written

1. (1) What four verbs are combined with **love** and **write** to make the compound forms? — For a verb not given in this article, cf. 38. — (2) What verb enters into every passive combination? (3) What is the voice of **loved** and **written**? (4) What is the exact difference, then, in meaning and in formation between **he was loving** and **he was loved**?¹ (5) What participle is invariably used in imperfect tenses? (6) What participle in passive forms?

¹ This is a question of great importance. If it is thoroughly and clearly comprehended and answered, a most prolific source of error will be at once removed.

2. A word, letter, or syllable which invariably accompanies a tense and distinguishes it from other tenses, is called the sign of that tense. (1) What are the signs of the future in both voices? — Note that the sign differs in different persons. — (2) Of the present perfect? (3) Of the past perfect or pluperfect? (4) Of an imperfect? (5) Is the verb **be** a sign of the passive? Cf. **he is writing, he was loving**. (6) What is the ending of the past passive participle in the new conjugation? (7) What in the old, whenever this participle has any ending?

3. In addition to the verb combinations just given, such groups as **he has been writing, he had been writing**, are not uncommon.

What words in these groups show that the action referred to is now complete? What word shows that it was going on in the past?

The verb **do** is combined very commonly with other verbs in such phrases as

a. **Do you skate?**

c. **I do (skate).**

b. **Do come early.**

d. **He did not come.**

e. **It does move.**

Note that **do** is used in questions and answers, in commands, in negative and emphatic statements. Cf. 46, and 68, 5.

FORMATION OF WORDS.

42. Nouns. — What is the whole difference of meaning between **he** and **she**, **king** and **queen**, **boy** and **girl**, **son** and **daughter**?

He, **king**, **boy**, and **son** are said to be of the **MASCULINE GENDER**, because they designate males; and **she**, **queen**, **girl**, and **daughter** of the **FEMININE GENDER**, because they designate females.

Most nouns have no gender, since they designate neither males nor females,¹ and are sometimes called **NEUTER**, which means *neither*. The pronoun **it** is used in referring to nouns which have no gender.

1. Study the words: —

act	execute
actor actress	executor executrix
found	enchant
founder foundress	enchanter enchantress

also **god, goddess; lion, lioness; prince, princess.**

(1) What endings are used in the above words to change a masculine into a feminine noun? (2) What to denote the feminine agent? (3) What to denote the masculine agent?

¹ That is, English distinguishes only two genders, and the gender is based solely on sex. The Latin has the English gender distinction by sex, and in addition to it, but not in conflict with it, the system of gender distinction by endings. Only those nouns which have no gender according to the English system are divided into masculine, feminine, and neuter, by endings.

2. Study the endings of the following words : —

bullock , a little bull.	lambkin , a little lamb.
brooklet , a little brook.	hillock , a little hill.
babykin , a little baby.	hamlet , a little village.
floweret , a little flower.	cigarette , a little cigar.
lancet , a little lance.	sermonette , a little sermon.

What is the meaning of *diminutive*? Give five diminutive endings.

3. What is the ending, and what is its force in

adornment, *that which adorns* ;
punishment, *that which punishes* ;
atonement, *that which atones* ?

What is the likeness, and what the difference of meaning, in **atoner** and **atonement**, **punisher** and **punishment**? Cf. 42, 1. Note, however, that this ending in the above words may also name an action, or the result of an action.

4. Study the following endings : —

- a.* **He creates** — a creation. *c.* **He feels** — a feeling.
b. **He inclines** — an inclination. *d.* **He covers** — a covering.
e. **He possesses** — a possession.

What endings above express the action of the verb?

5. Study the endings and meanings of the following words : —

bright, brightness **true**, truth **wise**, wisdom **safe**, safety
good, goodness **wide**, width **free**, freedom **frail**, frailty

(1) What derivative endings name a quality? (2) From what part of speech are the nouns here given derived? (3) What likeness in meaning is there between this part of speech and these nouns?

43. **Adjectives.** — Study the endings and meanings of the following adjectives:—

foolish	golden	wonderful	lustrous	(from lustre)
Turkish	wooden	beautiful	grievous	(“ grief)
whitish	royal	blamable	furious	(“ fury)
smallish	brutal	laughable	horned	manly
hearty	helpless	despotic	turreted	lovely
misty	heartless	historic	sugared	lowly

1. What two adjective endings above mean *full of*?
2. Which ending means *provided* or *furnished with*?
3. Which has the meaning *somewhat, to a certain degree*?
4. Which means *made of*, denoting material?
5. Which means *like*?
6. What endings mean simply *belonging to*?
7. How would you make an adjective meaning *not to be resisted*?

8. What adjectives above are like this? This last ending, however, has sometimes the meaning simply *like* or *belonging to*.

44. **Adverbs.** — Note the ending of the adverbs **merrily**, **carefully**. Is every word with this ending an adverb?

1. Learn the following list of very common adverbs, with the exact meaning of each, comparing with the pronouns on the left:—

Pronouns.	Place in which.	Place to which.	Place from which.
h-e	h-ere	h-ither	h-ence
th-at	th-ere	th-ither	th-ence
wh-o	wh-ere	wh-ither	wh-ence

2. What is the first letter of each word on the first line horizontally? What are the two first letters of those on second line? Of those on third line?

3. Give the meaning of each of these adverbs by using a preposition and its case modified by an adjective.

45. Verbs. — Note the endings of the verbs in

They blacken their enemies' reputations.

They harden their hearts.

What is the ending of both these verbs? What does this ending mean?

46. Letters or Syllables equivalent to Separate Words. — Compare the letters underlined in the first column with the words underlined in the second column, and cf. 38.

lioness

wooden

he called¹

the boy's hat

fonder

she-lion

made of wood

he did call

the hat of the boy

more fond

Note that the letters underlined in the first column have the same meaning as the words underlined in the second. We thus see that in inflection or derivation a letter or a syllable of a word has often the meaning of a whole word, and the latter may be substituted for it. We certainly ought not to be surprised if in other languages we find that only letters or syllables of inflection are used where the English uses separate words.

¹ The **-ed** in the ending of the past tense is only another form of the word **did**; cf. 68, 5.

SYNTAX.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.*

47. Subject and Predicate. — As we have already seen, a sentence is simply a statement of some fact or thought.

Let us study the following sentence to see how it is made: —

Midas paused.

1. We have here the statement of a fact. Here the statement is made about **Midas**, and it is clear that, if any statement is made, it must be made about some person or thing.

That about which the statement is made is called the **SUBJECT** of the sentence.

2. The word **paused** asserts or says something about **Midas**.

That which is said about the subject of the sentence is called the **PREDICATE**, which means simply *the thing said*.

3. Of how many words does this sentence consist? Let each pupil make five sentences containing only two words each, and distinguish the subject and predicate in each.

48. Modifying Words, Phrases, and Clauses. — If we turn to any book, we shall find that very few of the sentences consist of but two words. We shall find sentences like the following: —

a. The stranger gazed about the room.

b. It was a young man with a cheerful face.

c. To err is human.

d. He valued his royal crown chiefly because it was composed of precious metal.

e. Once upon a time there lived a very rich man, and he had a little daughter.

f. All the beautiful roses that had so many lovely blushes are blighted and spoilt.

g. This fabric had been transmuted to what seemed a woven texture of gold.

1. In sentence *a*, **stranger** **gazed** would have been a sentence, but we find other words which give us new ideas about **stranger** and **gazed**. It was **the stranger**, and the words **about the room** tell how he **gazed**.

Any combination of words which does not contain a subject and a predicate is called a PHRASE.

Since the phrase **about the room** limits the verb **gazed**, to what part of speech is it equivalent?

In sentence *b*, the phrase **with a cheerful face** evidently describes the noun **man**. To what part of speech is it, therefore, equivalent?

What part of speech is the phrase **to err** in *c*?

2. In sentence *d*, the words **it was composed of precious metal** limit the verb **valued**, by telling why he **valued** the crown. If these words tell us something, they must make a sentence. What is the subject and what the predicate of this sentence? By what conjunction is it connected with the preceding sentence?

When two or more sentences are thus united, each is called a CLAUSE.

To what part of speech is this clause equivalent?

3. What two clauses does the sentence *f* contain? What word does the clause beginning with **that** describe? To what part of speech, then, is this clause equivalent?

What clause is the object of the preposition *to* in *g*?
What part of speech is the object of a preposition? Then,
what part of speech is this clause?

49. Simple, Complex, and Compound Sentences. — We have seen that every sentence must contain a subject and a predicate, and that it need contain only two words, though it does usually contain more than this, because both subject and predicate are enlarged, as it is called, by modifiers, which may be single words, phrases, or clauses. Again, we have learned that phrases and clauses may be adjectives or adverbs or nouns, just as single words are.

Phrases and clauses are adjective, adverbial, or noun phrases and clauses, according to their *use*. (See 19.) Noun clauses are often called **SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES**.

1. Note now that sentences *a*, *b*, and *c* consist of words and phrases, but contain only one subject and one predicate apiece.

Such sentences are called **SIMPLE SENTENCES**.

2. Note that in *d* the chief statement, **He valued his royal crown**, is described by the less important statement, **it was composed of precious metal**, with which it is connected by the conjunction **because**. Which of these statements should be called principal, which subordinate?¹

A combination of a principal and a subordinate clause, or subordinate clauses, is called a **COMPLEX SENTENCE**. The subject or predicate without any enlargement is called the **SIMPLE SUBJECT** or **PREDICATE**.

3. Note that sentence *e* really contains two statements; namely, **Once upon a time there lived a very rich man**, and **Once upon a time a very rich man had a little daughter**,

¹ The pupil should consult the dictionary if he does not know the meaning of these words.

united by the conjunction **and**. Are these statements considered of equal importance, or is one descriptive of the other, as in *d*?

Such a sentence is called a **COMPOUND SENTENCE**.

What is a compound sentence? Show, from the above, how the device of uniting two statements saves words.

4. The sentence *f* is both complex and compound. Show that it is so.

50. Declarative, Interrogative, and Imperative Sentences. — Contrast the three sentences which follow: —

a. **What is your wish, Midas?**

b. **Tell me your wish, Midas.**

c. **Midas will tell me his wish.**

1. Which of the above sentences is a question? Which a command or request? Which a statement of fact? Which of them should be called declarative? Which interrogative? Which imperative?¹

2. Interrogative and imperative sentences must, of course, be addressed to somebody. What case and what person ought, then, to be expected in such sentences? Cf. 21, 4, and 31, 2. Pick out this case and this person in the sentences above.

3. A verb, when used like the verb **tell** in *b*, to express a command or request, is said to be in the **IMPERATIVE MODE**. In English this mode has but one form, and this is always the same as the second person plural of the present tense of the mode used in declarative sentences.

4. Construct several interrogative sentences, and make

¹ The so-called exclamatory sentence may always be classified as interrogative or declarative. For the use of **do** in interrogative, negative, and imperative sentences, see 41, 3, 68, 5.

as large a list as you can of the words which stand first in such sentences. What short verb is often used to introduce them? Contrast the use of **who** in **Who is there?** and **The man who is there is my uncle.**

The first **who** is called an INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN. What other interrogative pronouns have we? (See the questions in this article.) Where do we find the word to which such pronouns refer?

5. Construct several imperative sentences. Where does the verb stand in such sentences? Note that the subject of a verb in the imperative is rarely expressed.

6. Strictly speaking, the interrogative and imperative sentences are not statements or assertions at all, and so not sentences according to the definition (see 47); but they can be so readily changed to the declarative form that this inaccuracy will cause but little difficulty.¹

51. Use of 'there' and 'it' as Expletives. — Study the use of **there** and **it** in the following sentences: —

a. **There** lived a very rich man.

b. **He** made **it** his custom to pass a portion of every day in a dark apartment.

c. **It** was far more probable that he came to do Midas a favor.

d. **There** was now a brighter gleam than before.

Note that, in sentence *a*, **there** takes the place, at the beginning of the sentence, of the subject, a **very rich man**, about whom the statement is made. In *b*, **it** takes the

¹ The pupil should have much practice in changing declarative sentences to imperative and interrogative, and *vice versa*. He should also be required to select the interrogative and imperative sentences from continuous narrative, or colloquial, prose.

place of the infinitive, **to pass**, following, which is the real object of **made**. What are the real subjects of the verb **was** in *c* and *d*?

Note, then, that **there** and **it** are often used to anticipate a noun coming later in the sentence, and to suggest that the real subject or object is not yet reached. When so used, **there** and **it** are called **EXPLETIVES**; **there** retains its value as an adverb limiting the following verb, and **it** is a pronoun used as a substitute and temporary subject or object.¹

52. The Noun Clause. — Study the noun clauses in the following sentences: —

a. It was far more probable that he came to do Midas a favor.

b. This fabric had been transmuted to what seemed a woven texture of gold.

c. Whether Midas slept as usual that night, the story does not say.

d. He felt a presentiment that this stranger had come hither with the purpose of gratifying his wishes.

e. My desire is that I may be faithful.

1. Which clause is the subject of a sentence?
2. Which receives the action of a verb?
3. Which is used after the verb **to be**?
4. Which is governed by a preposition?
5. Which means the same as another noun used immediately before it?

¹ This expletive use is very common and very much neglected. Let the pupil make many sentences like those above. A study of the pronoun **it** in its various peculiar uses will prove very profitable. See this word in Webster's International Dictionary.

A whole article has been given to the noun clause because of the difficulty which pupils have with it and because of its extreme importance. The pupil who really understands that a clause may have almost all the uses of a noun and also those of the adjective and adverb (see 48, 2, 3, and 49), will have little difficulty with the grammatical make-up of sentences.

53. Construction of Sentences. — Study the connection of parts in the following sentences: —

a. The transparent crystals turned out to be plates of yellow metal, and of course were worthless as spectacles, though valuable as gold.

b. He recognized the same figure which had appeared to him, the day before, in the treasure-house, and had bestowed on him this disastrous faculty of the Golden Touch.

c. The boiled egg immediately underwent a change similar to that of the trout and the cake.

d. The solid metal so burned his tongue that he roared aloud.

1. In *a*, what is the subject of the verb **were**? What other verb has the same subject? What grammatical device enables us to use one subject with two verbs? (See 49, 3.) What subject is used with two verbs in *b*? What two nouns are connected with a pronoun by one preposition in *c*?

The device (described in 49, 3) by which words are saved, makes long sentences a little less clear, and many pupils find it difficult to understand (what we have seen for ourselves in the above sentences) that two or more verbs may be used after one conjunction, or two or more

nouns after one preposition. This difficulty is increased if one of the verbs is widely separated from its subject.

2. The hearer or reader is sometimes helped to understand a sentence by the use in related clauses of words which suggest each other, such as **so** and **that** in *d*.

Such words are called **CORRELATIVES**.

Use **neither** and **nor** in a sentence as correlatives. Use in sentences all the other correlatives of which you can think.

3. The pupil must remember that every word in a sentence is connected in thought with some other word.¹ He has already seen this for himself. Cf. 15. In taking up a new word, then, he must ask, "With what word is this word united in thought? With what does it go to make sense?"

It is so evident that a sentence is a complete structure, made by fitting words together, that we speak of "building a sentence," and use the word **CONSTRUCTION** when we mean the relation which one word has to other words of the sentence in which it stands.

4. The process of separating a sentence into its parts is called **ANALYSIS**. These parts have very different grammatical value.

In sentence *b*, what is the principal verb? (See 49, 2.) What noun receives the action of this verb? What adjective clause (see 48, 2, 3, and 49) describes this noun? What adverbial phrases modify the verbs of this adjective clause?

54. Use of Diagrams. — The connection of the parts of a sentence may be indicated to the eye by what are called **DIAGRAMS**.

¹ What case and what so-called part of speech might be considered exceptions to the statement? Are such words strictly "in a sentence"?

1. Which of the subjects above do you know to be nominative from their forms? Which one of them is the subject of a passive verb?

Note that it is nominative, although not acting but acted upon. The subject of a verb¹ is always in the nominative case.

2. Which of the subjects above are names of inanimate objects?

Note, then, that inanimate objects are capable of action, though, of course, not of voluntary, conscious² action. Make or find three other sentences in which things act.

3. For the clause as subject, see 52.

56. Study the predicates of the following sentences:—

a. **They saw me.**

b. **It is I.**

c. **Her little form grew hard and inflexible.**

d. **I love odd names.**

e. **Little Marygold ran to meet him.**

f. **Midas was called a happy man.**

1. Note that in some of the sentences above, the verb represents an action as passing over from the subject to some other object,—as being exerted upon something. Thus the word **saw**, in *a*, represents action exercised by the subject **they** upon **me**. So also with **love**, in *d*. The verbs **is** in *b*, **grew** in *c*, and **ran** in *e* do not represent any action as being exerted upon the nouns or adjectives which follow them.

¹ It is not necessary to say a finite verb, for the English infinitive is not in this book regarded as a verb at all.

² If you do not know the meanings of “voluntary” and “conscious,” look them up in the dictionary.

Such verbs are called **INTRANSITIVE**,¹ while those which do carry over an action from the subject to some other noun or pronoun are called **TRANSITIVE**.

2. In what voice is the verb in *f*? Note that in this sentence the word which is affected by the action of the verb — viz., **Midas** — is the subject, and hence in the nominative case. This will be clear if we substitute the pronoun **he** (cf. 22, 3) and write **He was called a happy man**. But in the case of the active verbs in *a* and *d* the word which is affected by the action is not the subject.

The noun or pronoun which receives the action of a verb is called its **OBJECT**. The object of an active verb is in the accusative case. This is evident, in *a*, from the form of **me**.²

3. Note how necessary to the statements contained in these sentences are the pronoun **I** in *b*, the adjectives **hard** and **inflexible** in *c*, and the noun **man** in *f*.

Because these words are so necessary in completing the assertion, or predication, of the verb, they are called **PREDICATE** nouns, pronouns, and adjectives.

Note further that each of these words refers to the same thing as the subject of the sentence. A noun, pronoun, or adjective used in the predicate, not as an object but to refer to the subject and describe it, is in the same case as the subject.

4. Note that in verb phrases (like **was called**, in *f*), formed by combining the verb **be** and a participle (see 39,

¹ Note, however, that verbs usually intransitive are sometimes transitive; we may say, e.g., **he ran a race**. We cannot tell whether a verb is transitive or not until we see it *used*. (See 19.)

² Pupils find much difficulty in distinguishing between the subject of the passive and the object of the active. The subject of the passive is in reality both subject and object.

40, 41), the participle is a predicate adjective describing the subject.¹

57. Appositive. — Study the descriptive words in the following: —

Near him was seated John Alden, his friend and household companion, writing with diligent speed.

1. What is the relation of the nouns **friend** and **companion** to **John Alden**?

A noun which is thus used to describe another without the aid of any other word is called an **APPOSITIVE**. Such a noun is in the same case as that which it describes.

In what respect is it like the predicate noun? In what different?

2. What part of speech is **writing**? What does it limit? Note its position, following its noun.

Such a word is called an **APPOSITIVE ADJECTIVE**. Note further that such an adjective may be separated from its noun by several words.

3. For clause as appositive, see 52.

58. Absolute Construction. — Study the grammatical connection in the following sentences: —

a. The rear-guard of his army retreated, the front giving way too.

b. Open wide in her lap lay the well-worn psalm-book of Ainsworth, printed in Amsterdam, the words and the music together.

¹ The contents of this section are of very great importance. Before going farther, the pupil should have much drill upon transitive and intransitive verbs, direct objects, and predicate nouns, both by constructing sentences containing these constructions, and by picking them out of connected narrative.

c. He being successful, his opponents were removed from office.

1. Note that the underlined phrases have no grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence.

Words and phrases thus used are said to be in the ABSOLUTE CONSTRUCTION, "absolute" meaning simply *loosed from* the rest of the sentence.

Note further that each of these phrases contains a noun or pronoun, and that two of them contain a participle. This construction is very frequently formed by combining a noun or pronoun and a limiting participle. Judging from *c*, in what case is this noun or pronoun?

2. The participle in the absolute construction must be carefully distinguished from the participle which limits some word intimately connected with the rest of the sentence. Thus **printed**, in *b*, limits **psalm-book**, which is the subject of **lay**. (See 56, 4, and 57, 2.)¹

59. Study the objects of the verbs in the following sentences, and the change from active to passive: —

a. **His soldiers made him king.**

b. **He was made king by his soldiers.**

c. **He taught me Greek.**

d. **I was taught Greek by him.**

e. **I asked him his name.**

f. **Midas touched the rose.**

1. How many objects have the verbs in *a*, *c*, and *e*?

Note that **king**, in *a*, is the result of the action of the verb **made** upon **him**, and that **king** and **him** refer to the same person. Is this so in the case of the two objects of

¹ The narrative poems of Longfellow furnish excellent material for drill in the use of participles.

taught and **asked**, in *c* and *e*? What other verbs take the same construction as **made**? Note the changes in the passive, and compare *b* with 56, *f*.

2. Change to the passive the sentence *f*, above. (1) What has the subject of the active verb become? (2) What has the object of the verb become? (3) How does the answer to the last question explain why an intransitive verb cannot be changed to the passive, *i.e.*, can have no passive voice? (4) Why should there be no accusative as object of a passive verb? (See 56, 2, and footnote.)

Note, however, that in the case of the verbs **teach** and **ask**, one of the two accusatives remains an accusative even in the passive. Cf. **Greek**, in *d*. For the case of **king**, in *b*, see 56, *f* and 3.

60. Study the words which limit the verb in the following sentences : —

a. **He** **threw** **the ball** **three hundred feet**.

b. **They** **fought** **the enemy** **five hours**.

c. **They** **fought** **the enemy** **fiercely**.

d. **The mountain** **was** **a mile** **high**.

e. **Let us** **go** **home**.

f. **Go** **west**, **young man**.

g. **Then** **the disciples** **went** **away** **again** **to their own** **home**.

h. **I** **go** **a-fishing**.

i. **All** **aboard**. **All** **on** **board** **were** **lost**.

1. How do we know that the words **feet**, **hours**, and **mile**, in *a*, *b*, and *d*, are not the objects of the verbs in the sentences in which they stand? Note that **hours**, in *b*, although a noun, has almost exactly the same limiting force upon the verb as **fiercely**, in *c*, and that **mile**, in *d*, limits the adjective **high** like an adverb.

Words used like **feet**, **hours**, and **mile** are called **ADVERBIAL ACCUSATIVES** (or **OBJECTIVES**) OF **MEASURE**; they are employed to express duration of time or extent of space.

2. Are the words **home** and **west**, in *e* and *f*, nouns or adverbs? It is certain that they are used instead of a noun governed by a preposition, and in such sentences as *g*, where **home** is preceded by adjectives, the preposition to is still used.

Note that **home** and **west** are very commonly used in such expressions as those above. Owing to this frequency of use, the preposition has been dropped to save time in speaking, or, as we might say, it has been worn away.

We might call **home** and **west** **ADVERBIAL ACCUSATIVES** (or **OBJECTIVES**) OF **LIMIT OF MOTION**. Why would this be an appropriate name? Sometimes in such expressions the preposition is not yet quite worn away, as in **a-fishing** and **aboard**, for **on fishing** and **on board**. We do say, however, **Let's go fishing**.

61. Study the use of prepositions in the following sentences: —

a. The **Golden Touch** had come to him with the **first sun-beam**.

b. That was the **breakfast** of the **king**. Cf. *c*.

c. That was the **king's breakfast**.

d. He attempted to **swallow** it in a **hurry**. Cf. *e*.

e. He attempted to **swallow** it **hurriedly**.

f. He gave **apples** to **John** and **me**.

g. He had a little **daughter**, **whom nobody but myself** ever heard of.

1. What nouns and pronouns in the above sentences are governed by prepositions? These nouns and pronouns are in the accusative case.

2. For what case of the noun is the prepositional phrase **of the king**, in *b*, a substitute? To what part of the word **king's** is the preposition **of** equivalent in meaning? Cf. 46.

3. What does the phrase **in a hurry**, in *d*, limit? To what word is it equivalent? Compare **a man of honor** and **an honorable man**. To what is the phrase **of honor** equivalent?

4. Note that, in *f*, the conjunction **and** does not at all affect the governing power of the preposition **to**, which affects the case of **me** as much as that of **John**. An ignorance of this truth as to the conjunction leads to many mistakes. The nominative **I**, for instance, is often incorrectly used in such a case as the above. Cf. 53, 1.

5. By what preposition is **whom**, in *g*, governed? Then does the preposition always precede its case?

62. Dative-Objective.—Study the underlined words in the following sentences:—

a. Tell me your wish. Cf. Tell your wish to me.

b. He wished to bequeath her an immense pile of yellow, glistening coin.

c. He came to do Midas a favor.

d. Forgive us our debts, as we forgive our debtors.

e. This town was near (or next¹) them. Cf. near to them.

f. The stranger's smile seemed to fill the room like an outburst of the sun.

g. Alas me! the pitcher was no longer earthen. Cf. Woe is me!

1. Considering only the form of the pronouns, what two cases are possible for **me**, in *a*, and **her**, in *b*?

¹ See 29, 1.

Note that the use, or function, of these words is clearly different from that of the direct objects, **wish**, in *a*, and **pile**, in *b*, since the action of the verb is only indirectly exerted upon them. Since the cases are distinguished, not by their forms, but by their functions (see 21, 1), this function should have a name of its own.

The indirect object is said to be in the DATIVE-OBJECTIVE CASE. This case is most frequently used with verbs of *giving* and *saying*, and those of similar meaning.

2. In *e*, while the adjective **near** describes **town**, the quality which it expresses is of most interest to **them**, and is said to be directed toward **them**. With **near** and **like**, whether adjectives or adverbs, the object to which the quality is directed may be put in the dative-objective. **Like** and **near** as adjectives in this use may be distinguished from prepositions by the fact that they describe some noun or pronoun. What construction is used with other adjectives which take an object for their quality, like **good**, **easy**?

3. In all the above sentences, what prepositional phrase may be used as a substitute for the dative-objective case? Cf. 46 and 61, 2, 3.

4. In many sentences the dative-objective is used in connection with an accusative-objective as direct object. Find an instance in the above sentences in which the dative-objective is used alone after a verb. Be particularly careful in such instances not to mistake it for a direct object in the accusative.

5. We may frame a passive expression similar to *a* by saying **I was told your wish**. What does the dative **me**, of *a*, become in the passive?

Note that **wish** is still retained as object, though the verb is passive, and cf. 59, 2.

63. Genitive or Possessive. — Study the genitive cases in the following phrases :¹ —

- a.* Her dear father's encircling arms.
- b.* The polished surface of the cup.
- c.* The suit burdened him with its weight.
- d.* A summer's day.
- e.* A year's pay.
- f.* His mind was in the state of a child's.
- g.* The book is John's.

1. For definition of the genitive case, see 21, 2.

2. Note that the word **father's** describes **arms** in just the same way that **encircling** does. **Father's** seems, then, like what part of speech? Think of an adjective which often has the same meaning as **father's**.

Note, however, that **father's** here retains so much of the nature of a noun that it is described by the adjective **dear**. What word would have to describe it, if it were an ordinary adjective? (See 14, 5.)

3. For substitutes for the genitive, see 61, 2 and 3.

4. Since a thing can hardly be said to possess anything, we do not commonly use the names of things in the genitive. What similar construction is used with names of things? Cf. *b*, above.

Note, however, the use of **its** in *c*, and that of **summer's** and **year's** in *d* and *e*. In the last two words, the genitive seems to be DESCRIPTIVE rather than possessive. What prepositional phrases might be well substituted for **summer's** and **year's**? Cf. 46.

5. Note that in *f* the genitive form **child's** has become independent, as an adjective sometimes does, and is used

¹ The pupil should here review the declensions in 22, 23, and 24.

as the object of the preposition *of*. Then in what case is it? Note further the frequent use of a genitive as a predicate adjective, as in *g*.

64. Adjective. — 1. For definition and use, see **14**, 4.

2. For the same form, used sometimes as adjective, sometimes as noun, see **19**, *d*.

3. For the pronominal adjective, see **20**, 3.

4. For inflection and derivation of adjective, see **25–29** and **43**.

5. For the definition and use of verbal adjective, or participle, see **20**, 1.

6. For the kinds and uses of participles, see **32**, **33**, and **41**.

7. For adjective phrases and clauses, see **48**, 1 and 3.

8. For predicate adjective, simple and verbal, see **56**, *c*, 3 and 4.

9. For appositive adjective and its position, see **57**, 2.

10. For participle in absolute construction, see **58**.

11. For adjective force of the genitive, see **63**, 2.

12. What do the adjectives in the following sentence limit?

I saw her going and coming, patient, courageous, and strong.

Owing to the fact that an adjective which limits a pronoun is seldom found immediately before it, pupils sometimes get the idea that an adjective cannot limit a pronoun at all.

13. Study the use of the participle in the following sentences: —

a. **He had planted a garden.**

b. **He has fled.**

In *a*, we can easily explain the participle **planted** as a passive participle limiting **garden**, which is the object of

had, — **he had a garden which was planted**; but the participle **fled**, in *b*, cannot be so explained, for the verb **flee** is intransitive, and therefore has no passive. Cf. 59, 2.

The fact is that in verb phrases compounded with **have**, the participial form has lost its proper force, and cannot always be explained grammatically. In all other verb phrases the participle has its proper adjective force.

65. Pronoun. — Study the pronouns in the following sentences, and find the words to which they refer, *i.e.*, their **ANTECEDENTS**:¹ —

a. **He** valued his crown because it was composed of precious metal.

b. Once there lived a very rich man whose name was **Midas**.

c. **I**, that speak unto thee, am he.

1. (1) What is the gender, number, and person of **it**, in *a*? (2) What of its antecedent? (3) What is the case of it? (4) What of its antecedent? (5) Answer the same questions in regard to **whose**, in *b*, and its antecedent, and in regard to **that**, in *c*, and its antecedent. (6) In what three respects does a pronoun agree with its antecedent? (7) In what respect does it not agree?

2. The pronoun **one** in such sentences as **any one will tell you**, and **whoever**, as in **whoever fails, I shall not**, have no definite antecedents, and are therefore called **INDEFINITE PRONOUNS**.

3. To what two pronouns may **what** be equivalent in **I know what he said**?

¹ The pupil should here review the definition of pronouns in 14, 2, their inflection in 24, and their gender in 42.

The word **what** may, then, be a **COMPOUND RELATIVE**, and contain its own antecedent.

Note, however, that it may also be an interrogative pronoun.

4. Which of the pronouns may become adjectives? Find out by using them in sentences.

5. For the double use of the relative, see 20, 5 and 6.

66. Agreement of Verb. — As we have already seen from 31, the verb must agree with the subject in number and person. Show from this rule why we may say, **I don't**, but not **he don't**.

67. Indirect Discourse. — Compare the sentences in parallel columns below: —

a. I don't care for such roses as this.

c. He thought: "The best thing I can do for this dear child will be to bequeath her an immense pile of coin."

e. How you have wet my nice frock!

g. What! then you are not satisfied?

i. Go, then, Midas, and plunge into the river that glides past the bottom of the garden.

b. Marygold said she didn't care for such roses as that.

d. He thought that the best thing he could do for that dear child would be to bequeath her an immense pile of coin.

f. He sees how he has wet her nice frock.

h. He asked whether he was not satisfied.

j. The stranger told Midas to go and plunge into the river that glided past the bottom of the garden.

1. The sentences on the left are fair samples of sentences in **DIRECT DISCOURSE**; those on the right, of sentences in **INDIRECT DISCOURSE**.

Note that the former are the exact words of some speaker, writer, or thinker, in just the form in which he spoke or wrote or thought them; while the latter are the same words closely joined and adapted, with as little change as possible, to the grammatical construction of a sentence in which they are quoted.

In *c* the words directly quoted form a sentence which is the object of **thought**, but the direct quotation is neither closely joined nor adapted to the verb **thought**, as is indicated by the presence of the colon after **thought**.

2. (1) What change in tense do you notice in passing from direct discourse to indirect, after a past tense? (2) Is there a change of tense in a quotation after a present or future? Cf. *e* and *f*. (3) Is the tense of the subordinate clause of the quotation changed after a past tense? Cf. *i* and *j*.

3. What change of person do you notice? Note, however, that the third person is not the only one found in indirect discourse. Suppose, for instance, that the child mentioned in *c* should report her father's thought about her. What pronoun would she use in referring to herself?

4. After what kind of verbs, as to meaning, do we make quotations?

5. (1) Are interrogative and imperative sentences ever quoted? (2) Can interjections or vocative cases be used in quotations? Cf. *g* with *h*, and *i* with *j*. It will be noted that the indirect form is not only less animated and pictorial than the direct, but that it is also of necessity somewhat inaccurate in conveying a speaker's exact idea. (3) Point out in these sentences two or three instances of this.¹

¹ Let the pupil be drilled thoroughly in the peculiarities of indirect discourse both by framing and scrutinizing sentences. Such a drill will make the same subject in Latin much easier.

68. Infinitives. — Study the infinitives in the following sentences: —

- a.* Midas used to pass whole hours in fondly gazing at them.
- b.* He could scarcely bear to see¹ any object that was not gold.
- c.* Midas felt himself to be not quite so happy as he might be.
- d.* Cf. *d.*
- d.* Midas felt that he was not quite so happy as he might be.
- e.* It would have been unreasonable to suspect him of intending any mischief.
- f.* He was enraptured to see himself in a suit of gold cloth.
- g.* Little Marygold ran to meet him.
- h.* He beheld the bright glistening of the precious metal.
- Cf. *i.*
- i.* He beheld the brightly glistening metal.
- j.* She did not walk. Did she run? She did (run).
- k.* She walked not. Ran she? She ran.²

1. For definition of infinitive, see 20, 2 and 6.

2. For inflection, see 33 and 41.

3. It will be noted that the infinitive in the above sentences, in one or another of its forms, is used in almost every one of the functions of the noun.

In which sentence or sentences is it the subject of a verb? In which the object? In which is it used as the object of a preposition?

Note that in *f* and *g* it is an adverbial accusative. Why? (See 60.)

¹ Note that for **to see any object, the sight of any object** might be substituted.

² The infinitive is perhaps the most difficult subject in English grammar, on account of the great variety of its uses. All of these uses will be understood if these sample sentences are mastered.

Note further that, though a noun, the infinitive has some of the functions of a verb.

4. In which sentence or sentences is the infinitive modified by an adverb? In which has it a direct object? But note also that the infinitive does not assert (see 20, 6), and that it is usually dependent on some other word.

5. Note that certain verbs from their very meaning require another action to complete their own. Such are the verbs **use**, in the sense of *be accustomed*, *a*; **can**, *b*; **will**, *e*; **did**, *j*. The infinitive is used to complete the action of such verbs, and is then called the COMPLEMENTARY (or *filling out*) INFINITIVE. This kind of an infinitive is very common in verb phrases, such as those in 41, and is often more essential to the meaning of such phrases than the independent verb with which it is used.

The verb **do** is common in expressions like those under *j*; i.e., in negative sentences, and in questions and answers. Note carefully, however, that the meaning of these expressions does not differ at all from that of the less common expressions of *k*. Why is the last word of *j* in parenthesis?

6. Cf. *c* and *d*, and note that the infinitive with a subject in the accusative case sometimes stands in indirect discourse. (See 67.)

7. Note that in *g* the infinitive is equivalent in meaning to *in order that she might meet him*, and expresses the PURPOSE of the running. Note, too, that in *f* the infinitive tells why he was enraptured, and is equivalent to the clause *because he saw himself*. The infinitive, then, may express PURPOSE or CAUSE. Cf. 69, 2, 3, 5.

8. Cf. and distinguish the word **glistening** in *h* and *i*. If the word **in** in *a* were omitted, what would **gazing** become? Note further that **glistening** in *h* has much more nearly lost its verbal force than **gazing** in *a*, and cf. 42, 4.

69. Temporal, Causal, Purpose, Result, Conditional, and Concessive Clauses.—In the following sentences study the subordinate clauses, and try to distinguish the different ways in which they limit or enlarge the meaning of the principal clauses:—

- a.* **When** he had saved enough money, he built a house.
- b.* He built a new house, **because** his old house had been burned.
- c.* He built a house to live in, or that he might live in it.
- d.* He built so good a house that he lived in it many years.
- e.* If he saved enough money, he built a house.
- f.* **Though** he had but little money, yet he built a house.

1. Note that the subordinate clause in *a* tells the time when the house was built. Such a clause is called a **TEMPORAL CLAUSE**.

What are some other conjunctions, besides **when**, which introduce temporal clauses?

2. Note that the subordinate clause in *b* states a fact which explains the action of the principal clause, by telling us why that action was performed. Such a clause is called **CAUSAL**.

3. Note that in *c* the subordinate clause states a thought, or more definitely a purpose, which explains the action of the principal clause by telling the motive which prompted it. Such a clause is called a **PURPOSE CLAUSE**.

4. Note that the subordinate clause in *d* expresses the **RESULT** of the action of the principal clause.

5. Pupils often find it difficult to distinguish between cause and purpose. Let this distinction be learned at once from these sentences. Note, then, that the causal clause states an actual fact which has occurred, but that

the purpose clause does not state a fact at all, but only a purpose, which may become a fact by being realized.

Both the purpose clause and the causal clause state a reason by telling why **he built the house**; but in one case the reason is the burning of the old house, in the other it is the purpose to live in a new one. Can we have a purpose without a person? Can we have a cause without a person?

6. The result is the opposite of the cause. The cause must precede the action of the principal verb. The result, of course, follows this action. The fact that both the purpose and the result clauses are introduced by the conjunction **that**, will cause no trouble to the pupil who considers the meaning of these clauses.

Let the pupil think of other facts, like the building of a house, and then frame sentences giving causes, purposes, and results in connection with these facts.

7. Note that, in *e*, we cannot tell whether he built a house or not, and that we are thus ignorant because we do not know whether he saved enough money or not; *i.e.*, the fulfillment of the action of the principal clause is dependent upon the fulfillment of that in the subordinate. Such a subordinate clause is called a **CONDITIONAL CLAUSE**, or **CONDITION**.

Is there any other instance in these clauses where there is doubt about the occurrence of the principal action?

8. Note that, in *f*, the action asserted in the principal clause is not what you would have expected from the statement of the subordinate. Yet granting or conceding the fact of the subordinate clause, the act of the principal clause did occur. Such a subordinate clause is called **CONCESSIVE**.

Note that here, as well as in *d*, the connection between

clauses is made clearer by the use of correlatives. (See 53, 2.) What are they in each case?

9. Note that, in *a*, the subordinate clause introduced by **when**, though expressing time as its primary idea, also suggests cause and condition. If we substitute for it the participle, thus, —

Having saved enough money, he built a house,

the participle suggests about equally the three ideas conveyed in the subordinate clauses in *a*, *b*, and *c*.

Of course, in connected writing, the comparative prominence of these three ideas of time, cause, and condition will depend largely upon the ideas suggested in the sentence which immediately precedes the one in question.

70. Modes: Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive. Conditional Sentences.—Study the verbs in the following sentences:—

a. **Thy will be done.**

b. **How much would the orchard be worth if each of the trees were fruitful?**

c. **How much would the orchard be worth if each of the trees were to become fruitful?**

d. **How much will the orchard be worth if each of the trees shall become fruitful?**

e. **The orchard would have been worth much if each of the trees had become fruitful.**

f. **Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him.**

1. Note, in *a*, how the meaning is changed by using **be** instead of **is**. **Thy will is done** expresses a fact simply and directly; but **Thy will be done** does not express a fact at all, but our desire that a certain thing may become a

fact. Here, then, are two ways or **MODES** of viewing an action, — as a fact, or as desired.

2. A verb which presents an action as a fact is in the **INDICATIVE MODE**; a verb which presents it as desired, or for any other reason doubtful, is often¹ in the **SUBJUNCTIVE MODE**; a verb which presents it as commanded or entreated is in the **IMPERATIVE MODE**. (See 50, 3.)

3. Note that the subjunctive in the present tense, third singular, has **be**, where the indicative has **is**. This form is the same in all persons, both singular and plural.

Note, in *b*, that the verb **were** has a singular subject. It could not, then, be an indicative, for in the indicative **were** is plural. It is a past subjunctive, and is the same for all persons and both numbers.

Note, in *f*, that **slay** has no final **s**, as it would have if it were an indicative. The subjunctive of all verbs except the verb **be** has only a present tense, and has the form of the simple infinitive in all persons and both numbers.

4. Note very carefully the different ideas expressed in the sentences *b*, *c*, *d*, and *e*. Note that in each the principal clause is modified by a subordinate clause which shows that the fulfillment of the action in the principal clause is dependent on the fulfillment of another action expressed in the subordinate clause.

Such a subordinate clause is called a **CONDITIONAL CLAUSE**, and the sentence containing it is called a conditional sentence.

5. From sentence *d*, we cannot tell at all whether the condition will be fulfilled or not; in other words, the

¹ The idea of desire, doubt, condition, possibility, etc., is very often expressed by combining the verbs **may**, **can**, **should**, **would**, etc., with an infinitive; thus, **if he should go, they may go**.

sentence implies¹ nothing as to the fulfillment of the condition.

Give other sentences referring to the present and the past which imply nothing as to the fulfillment of the conditions contained in them.

6. In *c*, however, it is implied that the fulfillment of the condition is unlikely, though not impossible. By what change in the words of *d* is the change of idea produced? What is implied in *b* and *e*? What is the difference in the time of these sentences? What mode is used in the conditional clause of *b*? Contrast the form and meaning of *b* and *c*.²

71. The Preposition 'of.'—Study the use of the preposition *of* in the following phrases and sentences:—

- a.* A crown of gold.
- b.* The crown of the king.
- c.* I never heard of her.
- d.* Midas was fond of gold.
- e.* The very tip-top of enjoyment.
- f.* To suspect or to convict him of crime.
- g.* He was possessed of this insane desire.
- h.* A matter of course.
- i.* Do you desire to rid yourself of this Golden Touch?

¹ Let the pupil remember that many sentences contain enfolded within them, or in a single word imply, what they do not explicitly affirm. Thus if I say, **Why did you go to Boston yesterday?** I imply not only that you went to Boston, but also that there is such a place as Boston, and that it is possible to go to it. Let the pupil illustrate further by other sentences of his own framing.

² For the syntax of adverbs, see 14, 5; for that of interjections, see 16.

- j.* **A heavy weight seemed to have gone out of his bosom.**
- k.* **Within seven miles of Boston.**
- l.* **All of us.**
- m.* **The city of London.**

1. It will be evident at once that the preposition **of** is used in a great variety of ways and with many different meanings. It will help us in some cases to remember that the preposition **of** is simply a shorter form of **off**, and hence originally had the idea of separation conveyed by **from**. In which phrases or sentences is this separative idea plainest?

2. (1) In which phrase or sentence is **of** with the accusative a substitute for the possessive or genitive case? (2) In which one does **of** mean *made of*, — thus denoting material? (3) In which does it mean *concerning*? (4) In which is it used with an object to explain the application of an adjective? (5) In which does it mean *by*?

3. Contrast the use of the preposition **of** in *e* and *l*. In *e* **the very tip-top** expresses a part of all **enjoyment**, while, in *l*, **all** is not a part of **us**, but refers to exactly the same people, and **all of us** means the same as **we all**. So, in *m*, **city** and **London** refer to the same thing, and **the city of London** means the same as **the city London**.

The use of the preposition **of**, in *e*, is called **PARTITIVE**, that in *l* and *m* is called **APPOSITIONAL**. Cf. 57.

72. The Word 'for.' — Study the use of **for** in the following phrases and sentences: —

- a.* **A dozen oranges for a quarter.**
- b.* **To fight for one's country.**
- c.* **To send for aid.**

d. Good for food.

e. He valued the sunbeam for this reason.

f. To this dismal hole—for it was little better than a dungeon—Midas betook himself.

g. Tall for his age.

h. To sail for England.

i. You may for all me.

j. Imprisoned for life.

1. (1) In which phrase or sentence does **for** mean *in place of*, *in return for*? (2) In which does it mean *in behalf of*? (3) In which does it mean *because of*? (4) In which is it a conjunction meaning *because*? (5) In which does it mean *in proportion to* or *considering*? (6) In which does it mean *during*?

Note that the meaning of **for** *aid*, in *e*, might be expressed by the words *in order to get aid*; the meaning of **for** *food*, in *d*, by *to be eaten*; and the meaning of **for** *England*, in *h*, by *in order that England may be reached*. To what, then, is the prepositional phrase introduced by **for** sometimes equal? Cf. 68, *g* and 7.

73. The Preposition 'with.'—Study the use of **with** in the following sentences:—

a. The general fought with his men.

b. The general fought with the enemy.

c. The soldiers fight with great bravery.

d. The soldiers fight with lances.

1. (1) In which of the above sentences does **with** mean *in company with*, i.e., denote ACCOMPANIMENT? (2) In which does it denote HOSTILE UNION? (3) In which does it

mean BY MEANS OF? (4) In which does the phrase introduced by **with** show the MANNER in which the action is performed?

2. The study of the prepositions **of**, **for**, and **with**, just made, shows that they are used in a surprising number of different senses, and we cannot be surprised to find that some of the meanings conveyed by these prepositions are conveyed in other languages by means quite different from those employed in English.

74. Lack of Precision in the English Use of Prepositions and Tenses. — Compare the idiomatic English expressions on the left with the more accurate but less idiomatic expressions on the right: —

<i>a.</i> He put it in the bag.	<i>b.</i> He put it into the bag.
<i>c.</i> Where will you go?	<i>d.</i> Whither will you go?
<i>e.</i> Looking up, he beheld the figure of a stranger.	<i>f.</i> Having looked up, he be- held the figure of a stranger.
<i>g.</i> When he comes, I shall go.	<i>h.</i> When he shall have come, I shall go.
<i>i.</i> He hopes to come.	<i>j.</i> He hopes that he will come.

1. From examples *a*, *b*, *c*, and *d* we see that an English verb clearly conveying the idea of motion is often used with an adverb or a preposition conveying the idea of rest in a place.

Sometimes the more accurate expression is not permissible in English; we cannot say, **they will meet to the corner**, although **meet** clearly expresses *motion toward*, but must use the more indefinite phrase **at the corner**.

Sometimes conventional English requires a preposition appropriate to *motion toward* where the sense requires one

appropriate to *motion from*, as in the phrase **averse to**, — **averse** meaning *turned away*.¹

2. In which of the sentences above does the English use a verbal form referring to the present where the sense is past? In which does it use a present for a future perfect? In which a present for a future?

3. The pupil will see from the above that the English language is somewhat vague and inaccurate in its use of prepositions and tenses. It is very necessary to remember this fact in translating English into other languages, or other languages into English.

75. Omission of Words. — Supply omitted words in the following sentences, so that the grammatical construction of each word will be plain : —

a. It was little better than a dungeon.

b. And then would he reckon over the coins in the bag, toss up the bar, sift the gold-dust through his fingers, and look at the funny image of his face as reflected in the circumference of the cup.

c. The remotest corners were lighted up as with tips of flame.

d. This is the day we celebrate.

e. He is as old as I.

f. Love thy neighbor as thyself.

g. He said they were playing.

h. I am weary of collecting my treasures with so much trouble, and beholding the heap so diminutive.

¹ While we must not quarrel with the usage of the language, the pupil should clearly understand that the usage here is arbitrary and conventional. If we expect our pupils to be intelligent, we must not rebuke them too sharply when they use their intelligence in saying **averse from**, and to **meet to**.

i. "What is the matter, father?" "Nothing, child, nothing," said Midas; "eat your bread and milk."

j. Who carves his thought in marble will not scorn these pictured bubbles.

k. He was born March 6, 1840.

1. (1) What common verb is often omitted in some of the above sentences? (2) What conjunction is used before an omission in several? (3) In which one is a relative pronoun omitted? (4) In which is a conjunction omitted? (5) In which is the antecedent of a relative omitted? For the construction of *b* and *h*, see 53, 1.

2. Note this important fact,—that the word or words to be supplied are very often suggested by words which precede.

3. We may see from the above sentences that the omission of words necessary to make complete sense is by no means uncommon in English. We ought not to wonder, then, if we find some instances of it in other languages which we may study.

ORDER OF WORDS.

76. Study the order of words in the following sentences and phrases:—

a. He lay in a disconsolate mood, regretting the downfall of his hopes.

b. He had a little daughter, whom nobody but myself ever heard of.

c. He gave all his thoughts and all his time to this one purpose.

d. He had planted a garden, in which grew the biggest and beautifulest roses that any mortal ever saw or smelt.

e. He thought to himself that it was rather an extravagant style of splendor, in a king of his simple habits, to breakfast off a service of gold.

f. Your own little Marygold, warm, soft, and loving, as she was an hour ago.

g. Will you never regret the possession of it?

h. In those quiet old winter evenings, around our Roman fireside, it was not seldom, my dear Storg, that we talked of the advantages of travel.

i. Whether Midas slept as usual that night, the story does not say.

j. Then would he reckon over the coins in the bag.

k. All these things we debated.

l. The child was so occupied by her grief for the blighted roses that she did not even notice the wonderful transmutation of her china bowl.

m. But this was only a passing thought.

n. Whatever moulds of various brain
 E'er shaped the world to weal or woe,
 Whatever empires wax and wane,
 To him who hath not eyes in vain,
 His village-microcosm can show.¹

1. (1) In which and in how many of the above clauses do the adverbial modifiers follow the verb? (2) In which do they precede? (3) In which does the object precede the verb? (4) In which does it follow? (5) In which does the subject come first? (6) In which does it follow its verb?

Note that in interrogative sentences (cf. *g.*) this always occurs; note, too, that a relative always comes first in its clause, whether it is an object or subject. Cf. *b*, *d*, and for

¹ The teacher will note the order here — direct object, indirect object, subject, verb; a somewhat unusual order, and yet the meaning is perfectly clear. The rigidity of English word-order is often much exaggerated; it is hardly rigid at all.

the reason of this, see 20, 5. (7) In which do adjectives stand before their nouns? (8) In which after? (9) In which does the preposition follow its case?

2. (1) Note that result clauses, and clauses in indirect discourse, usually follow the verb on which they depend. Cf. *e* and *l*. (2) Note that adjectives and pronouns have a tendency to stand near their nouns, and that if they are much removed, it must be where no obscurity would be caused thereby. Cf. *a*, *b*, *d*, *f*. (3) Note that the principal subject and verb are not likely to be much separated.¹

3. From the study of these representative English sentences, the pupil will see that much variation in English word-order is permissible, and that the order is a misleading guide to the grammatical construction. The only way to succeed in giving the construction of the words in a sentence is to study carefully the meaning of the sentence.

77. Pick out the emphatic words in the following sentences: —

a. The general deceived the king.

b. It was the king who was deceived by the general.

c. It was the general who deceived the king.

d. It was deception which the general practiced on the king.

e. Very delicious was their fragrance.

f. To him who, in the love of nature, holds communion with her visible forms, she speaks a various language.

g. The wise man travels to discover himself; it is to find himself out that he goes out of himself.

h. After all, my dear Storg, it is to know things that one has need to travel, and not (to know) men. Those force us to come to them, but these come to us.

¹ Here is an important difference between English and Latin.

i. Some years ago a ship was launched here with her rigging, spars, sails, and cargo aboard.

j. But, oh dear, dear me! What do you think has happened? Such a misfortune! All the beautiful roses, that smelled so sweetly and had so many lovely blushes, are blighted and spoilt!

1. Note that the sentence *a* contains no emphatic word, and how each word is made emphatic in *b*, *c*, and *d*, by bringing it to the end of a clause introduced by the temporary subject *it*. Cf. 51.

2. Note that emphasis always suggests contrast, a strong affirmative suggests an equally strong negative: thus in *b*, it was the king, not the people nor the prime minister; in *f*, it is the lover of nature to whom she speaks, not the man who cares little for her.

3. In *i*, the order indicates that for a ship to be launched with her spars aboard was remarkable, but to be launched with sails was more remarkable, while to be launched with a cargo aboard was most remarkable. Note, too, how in *j* the interest of the reader is increased by exclamations and rapid statements until it reaches its height at the word *spoilt*.

Such a *ladder* of ascending steps is called a CLIMAX.

4. Note that the emphatic points in the above clauses are at the end or at the beginning.

PUNCTUATION.

78. Study the marks employed in the following extract:—

Little Marygold had not yet made her appearance. Her father ordered her to be called, and, seating himself at table, awaited the child's coming, in order to begin his own breakfast. To do Midas justice, he really loved his daughter, and loved her so much the more this morning, on account of the good fortune which had befallen him. It was not a great while before he heard her coming along the passageway crying bitterly. This circumstance surprised him, because Marygold was one of the cheerfulest little people whom you would see in a summer's day, and hardly shed a thimbleful of tears in a twelvemonth. When Midas heard her sobs, he determined to put little Marygold into better spirits, by an agreeable surprise; so, leaning across the table, he touched his daughter's bowl (which was a China one, with pretty figures all around it), and transmuted it to gleaming gold.

Meanwhile, Marygold slowly and disconsolately opened the door, and showed herself with her apron at her eyes, still sobbing as if her heart would break.

"How now, my little lady!" cried Midas. "Pray, what is the matter with you, this bright morning?"

Marygold, without taking the apron from her eyes, held out her hand, in which was one of the roses which Midas had so recently transmuted.

"Beautiful!" exclaimed her father. "And what is there in this magnificent golden rose to make you cry?"

"Ah, dear father!" answered the child, as well as her sobs would let her; **"it is not beautiful, but the ugliest flower that ever grew!"**

Study the classification of sentences in 50.

1. An exclamatory sentence is one which expresses strong emotion.

Make and describe the mark which is used at the end of exclamatory sentences in the above extract. Find one or more instances in which this mark is used after exclamatory words. See also examples in 16.

Such a mark is called a **MARK OF EXCLAMATION**.

2. What mark is used after an interrogative sentence or word? Such a mark is called a **MARK OF INTERROGATION**.

3. What mark is used at the end of a declarative sentence? This mark is called a **PERIOD**.

4. Note, however, that the last sentence in the first paragraph on page 89 is divided into two sentences separated by a mark called a **SEMICOLON**, [**;**]. Note that, while the second of these sentences is grammatically independent, it completes and explains that which is stated in the first. Note, also, the relation of the two sentences separated by a semicolon in the last paragraph above.

5. Note in the following sentence a use of the period additional to that of 3: —

We know that Rev. J. D. Rogers, D.D., was born in Boston, Mass., Jan. 6, 1847.

After what abbreviations is it used? After what initial letters?

79. The Comma. — The mark [**,**] is called a comma. Study its use in the extract of 78.

1. Find four instances in which it is used just before the conjunction which connects the second clause of a compound sentence. (See 49, 3.)

2. Note carefully the punctuation before and after subordinate or dependent clauses. (See 48, 2, and 49, 2.) When the subordinate clause precedes the principal clause, as in **When Midas heard her sobs, he determined to put Marygold into better spirits**, it is always separated by a comma.

3. Note the difference of punctuation before the subordinate clause beginning with **because** and that beginning with **whom** in the middle of the first paragraph on page 89. What is this difference? Note that the principal clause would be complete without the clause beginning with **because**, but that the clause beginning with **whom** is essential to the completeness of what immediately precedes it.

4. What mark of punctuation, when not an exclamation point, is used with vocative cases and interjections? (See 16 and 21, 4.) Compare the punctuation of other somewhat disconnected and parenthetical words or expressions, such as, **seating himself at table; in order to begin his own breakfast; meanwhile; without taking the apron from her eyes.**

5. Note, however, that, where the expression is still more parenthetical and unnecessary to the sense, MARKS OF PARENTHESIS, as in (**which was a China one, with pretty figures all around it**), are used.

80. The Semicolon and Colon; their Relation. — Note the punctuation in the following passages: —

a. It is not a barrier; for it does not separate him from them: but it is an atmosphere through which he makes his approaches. It is the atmosphere of Philistinism.

b. They laid the corner-stone of modern law

On one broad truth with which the world has rung:

Free public education for the young.

1. The mark [:] used above is called a COLON.

2. Note that in *a* the colon indicates a separation in thought between the second and third clauses greater than that indicated by the semicolon which stands between the first and second, but not so great as that indicated by the period which stands between the third and fourth.

3. Note that in *b* the colon stands before the complete statement which we are led to expect from what precedes; the last line here expresses the "one broad truth" mentioned in the second line. The colon is often thus used to indicate that something which we have been led to expect is coming. It is especially common before a direct quotation (see 67, *c*) of some length.

81. The Dash, Apostrophe, and Quotation Marks. — Note the marks in the following sentences: —

"A lawyer who can play the piano seems to me like a — like a — contradiction of terms. I don't believe he'll ever be worth a red cent. I should never feel as if I could consent —"

"Mother!" exclaimed Jenny, who had a presentiment of what was coming next.

1. Note that the mark [—], as used above twice after *like a*, suggests hesitation in speech; as used after *consent*, it suggests an abrupt interruption. This mark is called a DASH.

2. Note its use in connection with the colon after the word *sentences* in the second line of this section. (See 80, 3.) The dash is often thus combined with the colon when what follows is more than one short sentence.

3. Dashes are sometimes used, as in **72**, *f*, with the same value as marks of parenthesis. (See **79**, 5.)

4. Note the omissions in the words **don't** and **he'll**. The mark which indicates these omissions is called an **APOSTROPHE**. For its use to form the possessive case, cf. **23**.

5. What marks are used to inclose a direct quotation? (See **67**.) Note carefully the difference between the pair of marks which introduce the quotation and the pair which close it. These are called **QUOTATION MARKS**.

82. The Use of Punctuation. — “In the construction of all but very short sentences, punctuation plays an important part. Properly managed, it helps the reader to get at the meaning of what is written or printed; for it serves to separate words that do not belong together, and to unite words that do.”¹

In the use of the marks of punctuation, considerable freedom is permissible. In many cases a writer may, for instance, insert or leave out a comma; or use either a comma or a semicolon, a colon or a period. He must not, however, obscure the meaning by his use of punctuation or be inconsistent with himself.

“Assistance may be obtained from a few simple rules founded on the principle that *the purpose of every point is to indicate to the eye the construction of the sentence in which it occurs*. One who knows few rules, but who has mastered the fundamental principles of construction, will punctuate far better than one who slavishly follows a set of formulas. A student of punctuation should ask himself why in a given case to put in a stop rather than why to leave one out; for the insertion of unnecessary stops is,

¹ A. S. Hill's, “The Foundations of Rhetoric,” page 23.

on the whole, more likely to mislead a reader than is the omission of necessary ones.”¹

83. Capital Letters. — Note the use of capitals in the extract in **78**.

1. Does the first word of a paragraph begin with a capital or a small letter?

2. After what mark of punctuation is a capital invariably used? Capitals are also used after interrogation and exclamation points where they indicate a complete stop. Note, however, the punctuation after the exclamation points in **78**.

3. What kind of a letter begins each line of poetry in **76**, *n*, and **80**, *b*?

4. What letter introduces the direct quotation in **67**, *c*? An exception to this rule sometimes occurs when the quotation is short or is very closely connected with what precedes.

5. Note, in **81**, that the personal pronoun **I** is written with a capital; the same is true of the interjection **O**.

6. Note the headings of sections **74**, **75**, **80**, **83**. What words are in capitals? What words in small letters? The same rule applies to the titles of books.

7. Collect from **78**; **78**, 5; **80**, *a*; **81**, all the nouns you can find which name single individuals and not whole classes. What kind of a letter begins each noun? Which are names of men or women? Which names a city? Which a state? Which is an adjective from the name of a country? Which is a title of honor or respect?

¹ A. S. Hill's, "General Rules for Punctuation."

THE RELATION OF ENGLISH TO OTHER LANGUAGES.

84. In its History and Vocabulary. — The Anglo-Saxon speech, which is the parent of our modern English, was introduced into England by the Angles and Saxons, Teutonic tribes, who came from the country between the Rhine and the Elbe, and began to settle and conquer England in 449 A.D.

In 1066 the Anglo-Saxons were conquered by the Normans, who lived in Northern France and spoke Norman French. In process of time the Normans adopted the language of the Anglo-Saxons, but enriched it with many French words.

In 1453, when Constantinople was taken by the Turks, many learned men who lived there went all over Europe teaching the Latin and Greek languages, which the people of France, England, and Germany had lost during the many centuries since the fall of the Roman empire. The great literatures of Greece and Rome were recovered with eagerness. This movement is called the "Revival of Learning." One effect of it was to lead at once to the introduction of a great many Latin and Greek words into English, and this process of borrowing words from Latin and Greek has been going on ever since.

In estimating the influence of Latin upon English, we must remember that the French introduced by the Normans was itself based upon the Latin, for the Romans, under the great Cæsar, had conquered Gaul, which is now France, about fifty years before Christ, and the natives of that country had adopted the language of their con-

querors. Of the 100,000 words in the English language, one half came directly or indirectly from Latin.

The Anglo-Saxon was a Teutonic language, like modern German, and many of our English words are closely related in form to German words having the same meaning.

Thus we see from the history of the English language, how helpful to a knowledge of English the study of Latin, Greek, German, and French may be.

85. In its Grammar.— The Normans had comparatively few inflections in their own language, and, in learning the Anglo-Saxon, they neglected the endings of the words, using prepositions or other complete words in their place. (See **38**, **46**.) The result has been that English now has very few inflectional endings.

While, for example, we use the word **gift** for both the subject and the object of an active verb, our Anglo-Saxon forefathers said **giefu**, *gift*, when they used the word as a subject, but **giefe** when they used the word as an object, and often when they wished to say *for gifts*, they used the dative plural **giefum**. (See **62**.)

The word **giefu** is of the feminine gender, and not neuter, as we call **gift**. With the Anglo-Saxons many names of things were masculine or feminine. (See **42** and footnote.)

Adjectives as well as nouns had case inflections (see **22**, **2**, and **25**), and there were many more inflectional endings for verbs than now. (See **31** and **38**.)

But this process of losing endings has not been going on in all languages; so, when an English student begins to learn Latin or German or Greek, he finds that many ideas are expressed by letters at the beginning or the middle or the end of a word which are expressed in his own language by separate words.

